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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this three-part publication is to enable junior and senior high school social studies teachers to assess and compare their professional goals and strategies with those of their colleagues and with current objectives and teaching behaviors recommended by education specialists and social studies researchers. The "Sampler" contains eight questions and 27 representative social studies approaches to help a teacher identify his teaching goals and the strategies and materials necessary to achieve them. Over 125 research reports related to the teaching strategies listed in the Sampler are noted and briefly discussed in the "Supplement." The "Annotated Bibliography" provides expository and contextual details about the reports and articles cited in the Supplement. (LH)

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Sampler

Contemporary Strategies in Teaching SOCIAL STUDIES Junior and Senior High School

Supplement

Authoritative Commentary and Bibliography

Annotated Bibliography

AA 000 414

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COOPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH LABORATORY, INC.
540 West Frontage Road, Box 815, Northfield, Illinois 60093

Contemporary Strategies in Teaching Social Studies
Junior and Senior High School

Authoritative Commentary and Bibliography
Annotated Bibliography

BY

DR. LESLIE A. WOOD

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Preface

Contemporary teachers (both preservice and inservice) need and want to continuously evaluate their classroom practices. Using this SAMPLER and SUPPLEMENT, those who teach social studies in Junior and Senior High Schools can assess and compare their professional goals and strategies with their colleagues' aims and techniques and with current objectives and teaching behaviors recommended by education specialists and researchers in the teaching of social studies and related social sciences.

In scheme and substance, the SAMPLER, SUPPLEMENT and ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY enable a teacher to identify specific goals and strategies, analyze their validity and effectiveness, and explore and pursue relevant knowledge and research. Though much valuable research about educational practices has been done, this book deals exclusively with competencies and concepts that uniquely apply to the social studies' teacher.

Dr. Leslie A. Wood, who created the SAMPLER and developed the SUPPLEMENT and ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY for CERLI, is an Associate Professor, Social Studies and Secondary Education, School of Education, Indiana University. Professor Wood has taught in secondary schools at Huntington, Indiana; Euclid, Ohio; and Glendale, California. At Stanford University, he was a Director of Secondary Student Teaching. At the University of Toledo, Wood directed Student Field Experiences and, in 1965, the National Defense Education Act Institute for Teachers of Culturally Disadvantaged, United States Office of Education and the University of Toledo. In 1967, he directed the National Defense Education Act Institute for Teachers of Civics for Disadvantaged, United States Office of Education and Indiana University.

Dr. Wood has published articles in several professional journals, a *Student Teaching Handbook* (University of Toledo, 1965) and, with E. J. Nussel, *Readings in Educating the Disadvantaged,* 1965. The National Council for Social Studies published and in April, 1969 disseminated Bulletin #43, *A Guide to Human Rights Education* by Dr. Leslie Wood and Dr. Paul Hines.

In gathering and organizing material for the CERLI publication, Professor Wood acknowledges the assistance of James Mackey, John Patrick, Lee Stoner of Indiana University; Jan Tucker, Stanford University; and Paul Hines, School of the Ozarks. CERLI's editor-staff writer, Florence K. Lockerby, prepared the manuscript for publication.

Dr. Wood also expresses his appreciation to Anthony Tovatt, Ebert Miller, David Rice and Ted DeVries for some of the ideas used in creating the Social Studies' Sampler. In 1965, Tovatt, Miller, Rice and DeVries published *A Sampler of Practices in Teaching Junior and Senior High School English,* the *Rationale for a Sampler of Practices in Teaching Junior and Senior High School English,* and *The Instructor's Supplement Rationale for a Sampler of Practices in Teaching Junior and Senior High School English.*

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The SAMPLER

INTRODUCTION

The strategies in this SAMPLER should be considered a representative rather than comprehensive selection of approaches or techniques that a social studies' teacher might use in the classroom. (Including all of the effective strategies would not have been feasible for there is an infinite number.)

Inherently, no strategy is either good or bad. Whether a method or material will work depends on the teacher's timing and use. At times, students fail to learn simply because a teacher knows of no alternative approaches or more effective ways to use available media.

Before a teacher can decide what will work, he first must identify what he hopes to accomplish. Unfortunately, this initial step often seems so obvious that the decision is superficially or fallaciously made. A teacher may state such purposes as "making Johnny a good citizen" or "teaching Susan to appreciate history"; but unless he focuses on specific objectives, he cannot decide what to teach or what methods and media to use.

In order to realistically determine content and strategies, the teacher must state his objectives in terms of specific behaviors. Furthermore, unless the teacher knows what he wants to accomplish and understands what student behaviors will demonstrate that this goal has been achieved, he will experience difficulty in selecting and evaluating appropriate strategies, materials or media.

Anyone wishing to learn more about stating behavioral objectives will find the following references particularly helpful:

Mager, Robert F., *Preparing Instructional Objectives,* Fearon Publishers, Inc., Palo Alto, California, 1962.

Popham, James, *Instructional Objectives,* a series of seven filmstrips and accompanying tapes, Vincent Associates, P.O. Box 24714, Los Angeles, California 90024, 1967. An explanation of the various aspects of writing and evaluating behavioral objectives.

As a teacher works the SAMPLER, he may wish to devote some time to Part I—*Objectives* before developing Part II—*Strategies in Teaching Social Studies.* In fact, it might be most beneficial to crystallize this thinking and, after some interval, review these thoughts about objectives before turning to *Part II.*

Although teachers independently work the SAMPLER, its ultimate value lies in the sharing and discussion of the results in departmental or other formal or informal professional meetings.

Sampler

Contemporary Strategies in Teaching Social Studies in Junior and Senior High School

THE COOPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH LABORATORY, INC.
540 West Frontage Road, Box 815, Northfield, Illinois 60093
Developed by Dr. Leslie A. Wood, Indiana University, Bloomington

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This SAMPLER has been designed to help social studies' teachers formulate assessable goals and to select and employ effective strategies for improving social studies' instruction in junior and senior high schools.
UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES should the SAMPLER be used to evaluate a teacher's competency or a school's social studies' program.

Date____________________

Teacher's Name____

PART I: OBJECTIVES in TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES

As suggested in the introduction, in order to get the most out of this SAMPLER you must establish a set of criteria with which you can compare your strategies in social studies instruction to those cited in the SUPPLEMENT. To establish such criteria, think about and concisely state your responses in terms of specific behaviors rather than ambiguous unmeasurables like "making students good citizens" or "teaching students to appreciate history."

1. List the courses you teach in social studies:________________________________

____

____

2. Select one course for which you wish to identify your objectives:____________________

____

3. What 4 to 8 key concepts, ideas, or issues do you intend to use as a central focus for the course named in item two? (Use only one word or short phrase for each.):

4. Select 2 concepts or issues and tell what the students should do to demonstrate that they understand these concepts. (Use no more than two sentences for each concept.):

5. What specific skills will the students need to master in order to understand the concepts named in item 4? (List two.):

6. What must the students do to demonstrate mastery of these skills? (One sentence for each skill.):

7. What attitude, value, or emotion may be affected by an increased understanding of the concepts or issues listed in item 4? (List one for each of the two concepts.):

8. What can the students do to indicate the direction of their change in attitude or values?:

PART II: STRATEGIES in TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES

As you examine the following items, you will note that each describes a strategy that one could use in teaching social studies to junior and senior high school students. Though each strategy is specifically stated, you will perceive its conceptual significance and potential adaptability.

As you check the categories of ACTUAL USE, consider only the frequency with which you utilize the specific strategy.

As you check the categories of TEACHER'S EVALUATION, consider only the potential worth of the strategy. Whether you often, occasionally or seldom if ever utilize the strategy should not affect your evaluation of its efficacy.

	ACTUAL USE			TEACHER'S EVALUATION			
	I use this strategy: (check only one)			I consider this strategy to be: (check only one)			
	Often	Occasionally	Seldom or Never	Quite Valid	Occasionally Valid	Quite Invalid	Questionable
9, 10 When extensive factual knowledge needs to be learned effectively by students in a limited amount of time, make more extensive use of lecture and specific reading assignments.							
11, 12 Use a case study as a means of provoking controversy in order to get students involved in a topic or problem.							
13, 14 With below average students, place greater emphasis on basic factual recall because of their limited capacity to master more complex skills.							
15, 16 When programmed materials are available, use the programs instead of the textbook or lecture approach in presenting information to the class.							
17, 18 Use multiple textbooks rather than a single textbook to achieve greater student understanding.							
19, 20 Place a greater emphasis on independent study for the superior students as compared with the amount for the other pupils.							
21, 22 Organize your history classes around basic concepts of key ideas rather than a strict chronological approach.							
23, 24 Give quizzes often to insure students doing their homework and thus increase their learning.							

	ACTUAL USE			TEACHER'S EVALUATION			
	I use this strategy: (check only one)			I consider this strategy to be: (check only one)			
	Often	Occasion-ally	Seldom or Never	Quite Valid	Occasion-ally Valid	Quite Invalid	able Question-
25, 26 Assuming that the textbook was well selected, use it as the course syllabus to insure that the basic points in the course are covered.							
27, 28 Use role playing and games to help students interact with and understand complex problems.							
29, 30 Study comparative cultures so that the students may learn to more critically evaluate and better understand their own and other cultures.							
31, 32 In class discussions emphasize questions which require interpretation, analysis, or evaluation rather than memory and comprehension.							
33, 34 Use motion pictures to improve classroom learning.							
35, 36 In world history where there is a vast amount of historical data, stress acquisition of facts because critical thinking and other skills of scholarship are a derivative of a broad base of subject matter acquisition where understanding of pertinent data leads to an understanding of the problem.							
37, 38 Emphasize the formal structure of government and basic information as a means of developing social confidence in civics and government courses.							
39, 40 Have your students study great men in history to help them identify with our value system and understand the meaning of history.							

	ACTUAL USE			TEACHER'S EVALUATION			
	I use this strategy: (check only one)			I consider this strategy to be: (check only one)			
	Often	Occasionally	Seldom or Never	Quite Valid	Occasionally Valid	Quite Invalid	Questionable
41, 42 Assign students to do work in small groups.							
43, 44 Since civics and government courses effect little change in values, emphasize formal structure and basic information rather than values.							
45, 46 Because the curriculum needs to be adjusted to meet the needs of students with varying backgrounds, organize classes as homogeneously as possible.							
47, 48 Use simulation games as a method of classroom instruction.							
49, 50 Include extracurricular activities as a part of the social studies program.							
51, 52 Avoid teaching political values because children simply reflect political attitudes of their parents; a factual approach will ultimately be more affective.							
53, 54 Teach extensive factual information undergirding a generalization so that students will understand it better.							
55, 56 Organize a team teaching arrangement in each of the social studies subjects to improve academic achievement.							

	ACTUAL USE			TEACHER'S EVALUATION			
	I use this strategy: (check only one)			I consider this strategy to be: (check only one)			
	Often	Occasionally	Seldom or Never	Quite Valid	Occasionally Valid	Quite Invalid	Questionable
57, 58 Emphasize different approaches to the political process with students of different social classes. For example: with upper middle class students stress an active view of the political process; with lower middle class students emphasize responsibilities; express political harmony with working class students.							
59, 60 Use field trips to clarify and reinforce classroom learning.							
61, 62 Make course work more effective in changing social attitudes by including experiences and ideas (projected in films, other media, speakers) which conflict with students' presently held attitudes.							

Supplement

Authoritative Commentary and Bibliography

(To complement the *Sampler of Contemporary Strategies in Teaching Social Studies, Junior and Senior High School)*

Introduction

Most of this material consists of reports of research. Some articles, which present material not yet available in research form or material distinguished for its scholarly quality, have been included. Among the several hundred research reports and articles that were reviewed, only some 125 sources were selected.

Even though every effort was made to screen reports that had not been systematically evaluated or reports of research ambiguously or fallaciously designed, the quality of the selected material varies. In order to identify and validate an effective practice, several relevant studies were compared and analyzed. In some instances, conflicting evidence is presented so that the teacher by examining different points of view may make a considered judgment about effective classroom behavior. In certain instances, apparently conflicting views are interpreted. A few reports about elementary school pupils also have been included because the research deals with a commonly used method of teaching social studies.

Users will note that the bibliographical references listed under each practice include not only those cited in the commentary but others providing additional information or insight about the strategy. The ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY contains abstracts of all references.

9, 10 When extensive factual knowledge needs to be learned effectively by students in a limited amount of time, make more extensive use of lecture and specific reading assignments.

Researchers have found that methods aimed at achieving goals other than mastery of extensive factual material have been found to be just as effective in achieving factual learning.

Frogge (10) found that students taught by the reflective method had learned just as much knowledge of the principles of democracy as students taught by more authoritarian approaches. The only significant difference was the pupils' more favorable attitude toward the teacher using the reflective method.

Cox (5) found equal acquisition of facts in groups taught by the reflective method and a control group taught by conventional methods. Students taught by reflective thinking also improved in their ability to deal critically with questions of fact and value.

Rothstein (14) used the critical thinking method with one group and a control group which emphasized the acquisition of facts. Subject matter achievement or mastery of historical facts was attained equally well by both the experimental method and the conventional method; but the experimental group also developed critical thinking skills

Massialas (11) found that world history students, taught by the reflective thinking method, learned as many facts as those taught by a narrative method; but students taught by the reflective method also learned how to utilize skills and processes associated with the scientific method.

Other studies have shown that the quantity of factual material learned by methods other than assigned reading or listening to lectures was significantly greater. Skov (15) found that the quantity of factual learning in classes structured to promote social learning or democratic behavior decidedly exceeded the normal expectancy as judged by standardized test scores.

Carmichael (3) found that students who were taught conceptually (even by teachers with no previous experience) made greater improvement in map reading skills and significantly greater improvement in geographic understandings than students taught by an expository method.

Elsmere (8) found that a problem-solving approach to teaching United States history produced significantly greater pupil achievement than did a traditional approach. Similar results were found by Elias (7) when he found that student-centered methods of teaching ninth grade civics enabled students to acquire more subject matter and to develop more characteristics of democratic behavior than comparable classes taught by teacher-centered methods.

Oliver and Shaver (13) found that in teaching a three-year course in citizenship education students are capable of learning an abstract system of critical thinking and applying it to political and social issues. Students did not suffer any loss of historical knowledge and were inclined to show greater interest in public issues.

Perhaps more important in terms of learning is the influence of the subject matter on adult behavior. Willis (16) in following up 51 adults who had graduated from high school in 1938 found that only verbally learned material did not strongly influence adult behavior.

For additional information on the effectiveness of alternative methods of learning factual knowledge as compared with lecture or specific reading assignments, refer to *programmed materials* and *other media.*

1. Barratt, Thomas K. "A Comparison of the Effects Upon Selected Areas of Pupil Learning of Two Methods of Teaching United States History to Eleventh Grade Students." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:808-809, August 1965.
2. Brubaker, Dale L. "A Comparative Cultures Approach to the Teaching of Vocational and Citizenship Education in Secondary Schools." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:4491, February 1966.
3. Carmichael, Dennis R. "Developing Map Reading Skills and Geographic Understandings by Means of Conceptual Teaching Methods." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:7176, June 1966.
4. Cousins, Jack E. "The Development of Selected Generalizations in the Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 24:195, July 1963.
5. Cox, Charles B. "A Description and Appraisal of a Reflective Method of Teaching United States History." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:814, 1961.
6. Cox, C. B. and Cousins, J. E. "Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools and Colleges: Experiments in Method." *Indiana University School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 40: pp. 43-61, November 1964.
7. Elias, George S. "An Experimental Study of Teaching Methods in Ninth Grade Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 19:1302, 1958.
8. Elsmere, Robert T. "An Experimental Study Utilizing the Problem-Solving Approach in Teaching United States History." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:3114-15, 1961.
9. Fortune, Jimmie C. "Instructional Set, Cognitive Closure, and Test Anxiety in the Presentation of Social Studies Content." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:6547-48, May 1966.
10. Frogge, Robert M. "The Relative Effect of Two Methods on The Achievement of Certain Modern Problems' Objectives." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 25:5240, June 1964.
11. Massialas, Bryon G. "Description and Analysis of a Method of Teaching a High School Course in World History." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:1529-30, 1961.
12. McGarry, Eugene L. "An Experiment in the Teaching of Reflective Thinking in the Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:2721, 1961.
13. Oliver, D. W. and Shaver, J. P. "An Analysis of Public Controversy: A Study in Citizenship Education." A report from the Laboratory for Research and Instruction, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1962; Cooperative Research Project, 8145 (Contract No. SAE-551).
14. Rothstein, Arnold. "An Experiment in Developing Critical Thinking Through the Teaching of American History." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 21:1141, 1960.
15. Skov, Lyle L. "The Teaching-Learning of Factual Information in the Social Sciences in a Program that is Deliberately Structured to Promote Social Learnings for Democratic Behavior." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:4283-84, 1962.
16. Willis, M. "Social Studies and Citizenship Education." *Social Education*, 24:217-18, May 1960.

11, 12 Use a case study as a means of provoking controversy in order to get students involved in a topic or problem.

There is general consensus that case studies effectively involve students in a topic or problem because the studies hold students' interest, train them to solve practical problems and help them to draw significantly general conclusions by analyzing concrete situations.

Case studies can be culled from various sources. For example, case histories of democracy at work as exemplified by United States Supreme Court decisions are published in "Judgment", a quarterly feature in *Social Education.*

Erickson (5) found that films depicting actual cases provide effective case studies. Brubaker (2) and Kingdom (6) found that teaching information with versions of case studies was just as effective as factually presenting the material.

1. Badger, W. V. "Aspects of Creative Questioning in the Social Studies." *Social Studies,* 44:139-42, April 1953.
2. Brubaker, Dale L. "A Comparative Cultures Approach to the Teaching of Vocational and Citizenship Education in Secondary Schools." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:4491, February 1966.
3. Casteel, P. "Utilizing the Methods of the Political Scientist in the Social Studies Classroom." *Peabody Journal of Education,* Vol. 40: pp. 219-27.
4. Dunwidtie, William E. "Using Case Studies in Social Studies Classes." *Social Education,* Vol. No. 5: pp. 397-400, May 1967.
5. Erickson, E. F. "Study of a Problem." *Clearing House,* 26:82-6, October 1951.
6. Kingdom, Frederick H. "A Comparison of the Achievement of Fourth Grade Pupils Using Factual and Story Forms of Social Studies Materials." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:253, 1957.
7. Newmann, F. M. and Oliver, D. O. "Case Study Approaches in Social Studies." *Social Education,* Vol. 31: pp. 108-113, February 1967.
8. Parker, D. and Econopauly, N. "Teaching Civil Liberties by the Case Method." *Social Education,* Vol. 25: pp. 283-4, October 1961.
9. Watman, T. J. "Social Studies in the High Schools." *Education,* Vol. 84: pp. 286-90, January 1964.

13, 14 With below average students, place greater emphasis on basic factual recall because of their limited capacity to master more complex skills.

All students can develop the abstract skills exercised in thinking. In fact Goebel (3) found that slow pupils disliked work with vocabulary lists and enjoyed reading for discussion and making maps. All students ranked dramatizations and making murals as very interesting activities. Zweibelson (7) found that students in the lower quarter greatly increase their participation in discussion if the group is smaller than a typical class. Shafer (6) successfully used programmed materials rather than basic text material with slow learners.

For the slow student, reading skills are especially important. Luciano (4) pointed out that reading must be taught in terms of student comprehension and must appeal to the slower student. Gill (2) stresses that in order to interpret terms (time and quantitative concepts) teachers must develop contextual points of reference. For slow students in particular, this technique is mandatory.

1. Gardner, William E. "The Relationship Between Time Sense, Evaluating Information, and Achievement in American History." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 22:1056, 1961.
2. Gill, Clark C. "How Eighth Graders Interpret Indefinite Quantitative Concepts." *Social Education*, 25:344-6, November 1961.
3. Goebel, George. "Reaction of Selected Sixth-Grade Pupils to Social Studies Learning Activities Chosen by Their Teachers in the Public Schools of Topeka, Kansas." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:3755-56, January 1966.
4. Luciano, V. D. "Reading Skills Approach in Social Studies." *High Points*, Vol. 46: pp. 64-7, January 1964.
5. Scott, C. M. "Relationship Between Intelligence Quotients and Gain in Reading Achievement with Arithmetic Reasoning, Social Studies, and Science." *Journal of Educational Research*, 56-322-6, February 1963.
6. Shafer, S. M. "Geography Via Programmed Instruction." *The Journal of Geography*, Vol. 64: pp. 77-81, February 1965.
7. Zweibelson, I. *et al.* "Team Teaching and Flexible Grouping in the Junior High School Social Studies." *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 34: pp. 20-32, Fall 1965.

15, 16 When programmed materials are available, use the programs instead of the textbook or lecture approach in presenting information to the class.

The evidence suggests that the teacher can make best use of his time in other ways than presenting data to students. Fortune (2) found that programmed instruction was as effective as carefully structured lectures. Moore (4) achieved similar results but found that programmed material required less time. Ingham (3) found programs and other self-instructional materials better than classroom practices in terms of student achievement. Wood (6) showed that a combination of programmed and teacher-led instruction is more effective in teaching textbook content than is teacher-led instruction in conjunction with the textbook in geography. Barcus (1) had similar results in teaching the Constitution and three months later retesting indicated that the experimental group was still ahead of the control group. Shafer (5) found programmed material to be more effective than the regular textbook material for slow learners.

1. Barcus, D., and Pottle, J. "Programming the Constitution." *Social Education*, Vol. 29: pp. 29-31, January 1965.
2. Fortune, Jimmie C. "Instructional Set, Cognitive Closure, and Test Anxiety in the Presentation of Social Studies Content." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 26:6547-6548, May 1966.
3. Ingham, George E. "Comparison of Two Methods of Self-Instruction in Teaching a Unit in Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 23:1623-24, 1962.
4. Moore, Jerry R. "An Experiment in Programmed Instruction: Voting in Iowa, Ninth Grade Civics." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 25:5156-57, March 1965.
5. Shafer, S. M. "Geography Via Programmed Instruction." *The Journal of Geography*, Vol. 64: pp. 77-81, February 1965.
6. Wood, Leslie A. "Programmed Textual Material as a Partial Substitute for Teacher-Led Classroom Procedures in Geography." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 23:2037, 1962.

17, 18 Use multiple textbooks rather than a single textbook to achieve greater student understanding.

Although the use of multiple books appears to result in greater understanding and skill development, there is no loss in acquisition of factual material. Beaubier (1) found that using multiple books of greater complexity than the standard single textbook for the sixth grade resulted in students having a greater understanding of selected generalizations.

Schneider (8) found no difference in content acquisition between classes using multiple textbooks and those using single textbooks; but those who used multiple textbooks had greater development of work-study skills and understanding of the material. The greatest gains were made by students with superior mental ability. Bubriski (2) achieved similar results in his study. Schminke (7) found that the use of a weekly news magazine helped relate class study to current happenings.

Shaver (9) questions the validity of depending on textbooks (whether single or multiple) to do the job. His survey of 93 government problems and civics texts found that all were limited in developing a conceptual framework dealing with the basic issues facing our nation. It may well be that the teacher will have to depend upon sources other than textbooks to do a thorough job of developing functional student understanding.

1. Beaubier, Edward W. "Capacity of Sixth Grade Children to Understand Social Science Generalizations." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:2439-40, 1962.
2. Bubriski, A. and Myers, A. "Assignment: Research Paper." *Social Education,* Vol. 27: pp. 75-6, February 1963.
3. Fitch, Robert M. "An Experiment in the Use of Source Readings from American History to Develop Selected Reflective Thinking Skills." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:6546-47, May 1966.
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5. McGoldrick, J. H. "Teaching Research Techniques in the Social Studies." *Social Studies,* Vol. 54: pp. 15-17, January 1963.
6. Sandberg, J. H. "Independent Study for Bright Students." *Education,* Vol. 85: pp. 158-61, November 1964.
7. Schminke, Clarence W. "A Study of Effective Utilization of a Classroom News Magazine in Teaching Current Events." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 21:1874-75, 1960.
8. Schneider, Frederick W. "An Experimental Study Comparing the Effects of the Multiple Textbook Approach and the Single Textbook Approach to Elementary School Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:97-98, 1957.
9. Shaver, James P. "Reflective Thinking Values and Social Studies Textbooks." *The School Review,* Vol. 73: pp. 226-57, 1965.
10. Smith, Harold F. "Enrichment of Learning in American History Through Use of Specially Selected Books: An Experiment Using Books Listed in the Standard Catalog for High School Libraries in the Murphysboro, Illinois, Township High School." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 24:5100, June 1964.

19, 20 Place a greater emphasis on independent study for the superior students as compared with the amount for the other pupils.

There's a general consensus supported by empirical evidence that superior students benefit more from independent study than average students although all students do benefit to some degree. However, more emphasis on independent study would probably be more appropriate with superior students. Ingham (3) discovered that all students using various methods of self-instruction as compared with conventional classroom practices made statistically significant gains in achievement. As predicted, high achievers had the greatest significant difference in favor of self-instruction. Bubriski and Myers (1) had success with student research in an advanced placement class in United States History.

As a variation from the usual drilling for the New York State Regents and National College Entrance Examinations, Fink (2) used primary source documents in a high school honors course. Nor did this method decrease the great expectations of students in the program.

Jones (4) found that self-directed learning by students using study guides appropriate for their ability had practically the same value as teacher-directed methods of learning for all levels of ability.

1. Bubriski, A., and Myers, A. "Assignment: Research Paper." *Social Education,* Vol. 27: pp. 75-6, February 1963.
2. Fink, Lawrence A. "The New Rochelle High School Honors Course in American History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 27:701A, September 1966.
3. Ingham, George E. "Comparison of Two Methods of Self-Instruction in Teaching a Unit in Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:1623-24, 1962.
4. Jones, Annie L. "Graded Study Guides for Sixth Grade Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:2027, 1958.
5. Michener, J. A. "Who Is Virgil T. Fry?" *Clearing House,* Vol. 38: pp. 521-4, May 1964.
6. Sandberg, J. H. "Independent Study for Bright Students." *Education,* Vol. 85: pp. 158-61, November 1964.
7. Schneider, Frederick W. "An Experimental Study Comparing the Effects of the Multiple Textbook Approach and the Single Textbook Approach to Elementary School Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:97-98, 1957.
8. Weinswig, S. E. "Evaluation of Lessons to Teach Introductory Map Skills in Grade Four." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:1295, 1962.

21, 22 Organize your history classes around basic concepts of key ideas rather than a strict chronological approach.

In both history and other social science classes, research demonstrates that teaching based on concepts produces greater achievement than adhering strictly to the textbook and emphasizing factual knowledge. Dodge (5) compared a group of students taught with a concept-generalization approach to another group taught more traditionally and found that the first group made a statistically significant gain in learning historical facts.

Using geographic time zones to teach concepts of time and space convinced Davis (3) that adequate concepts help students to think clearly and retain this learning over time.

In several high schools, Chazanof (2) organized history programs in which students were assigned a document, composed a single sentence thesis suggested by the material, and cited reasons supporting the thesis. The students showed increased ability to identify principles and to explore issues. Newman (8) suggests that organizing courses conceptually eliminates the use of mythical ideals and other illusory premises (which could cause rejection or disillusionment) and allows students to objectively study basic ideas.

Carmichael (1) found that students taught conceptually in geography (even by teachers with no previous experience in this technique) made significantly greater gains in geographic understandings.

1. Carmichael, Dennis R. "Developing Map Reading Skills and Geographic Understandings by Means of Conceptual Teaching Methods." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:7176, June 1966.
2. Chazanof, William. "An Experiment in Teaching American History." *Social Education,* Vol. 30: pp. 425-26, October 1966.
3. Davis, Ozro L., Jr. "Learning About Time Zones: An Experiment in the Development of Certain Time and Space Concepts." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:2861, 1958.
4. Dimond, Stanley E. "The Role of Generalization in Teaching Social Studies." *Social Education,* Vol. 22: pp. 232-4, May 1958.
5. Dodge, Orville N. "Generalization and Concept Development as an Instructional Method for Eighth Grade American History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 27:1632-A, December 1966.
6. Engle, Shirley H. "The Culture Concept in the Teaching of History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 14:317, 1953.
7. Jones, S. H. "Generalizing in the Social Science Classroom." *Social Education,* Vol. 21: pp. 358-62, December 1957.
8. Newman, Fred M. "Consent of the Governed and Citizenship." *School Review,* Vol. 71: pp. 404-24, 1963.
9. Rich, S. M. "Promoting Critical Thinking in International Studies." *Peabody Journal of Education,* Vol. 39: pp. 24-7, June 1961.

23, 24 Give quizzes often to insure students doing their homework and thus increase their learning.

Frequency of testing appears to have little effect on student achievement. Curo (1) found no significant difference in achievement between classes which were tested daily over a six-week period and those which underwent only normal testing. Selakovich (4) frequently tested one college American government class during the course while the other class was tested only three times during the semester. There was no significant difference in course achievement between the two classes. Fortune (3) found that testing actually hindered learning when using programmed material.

1. Curo, Dwight M. "An Investigation of the Influence of Daily Pre-Class Testing on Achievement in High School American History Classes." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 24:5236, June 1964.
2. Faris, Gene. "Improve Your Teaching Effectiveness." *Social Studies,* Vol. 53: pp. 174-76, October 1962.
3. Fortune, Jimmie C. "Instructional Set, Cognitive Closure, and Test Anxiety in the Presentation of Social Studies Content." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:6547-48, May 1966.
4. Selakovich, Dan. "An Experiment Attempting to Determine the Effectiveness of Frequent Testing as an Aid to Learning in Beginning College Courses in American Government." *Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 55: pp. 178-80, December-January 1962.

25, 26 Assuming that the textbook was well selected, use it as the course syllabus to insure that the basic points in the course are covered.

Teachers often become so committed to covering the textbook's content that they overlook other relevant content and skill development. Few, if any, textbooks thoroughly and comprehensively deal with even the minimum knowledge that any social studies course should present.

Urick (5) analyzed 10 secondary school American History textbooks to categorize content: race and minority group relations; religion and morality; social class; sex and marriage; economics; government. In every text, most content concerned economics and government and no reference to or treatment of the other categories. Furthermore, the text containing the most discussion and explanation of economics and government included three times as much material as the text containing the least.

Meeder (3) found what he judged inadequate treatment of topics considered significant in understanding the relationship of industrialization to social-cultural changes and to current social problems in America.

In addition to systematic studies, the literature presents many and highly critical opinions—valid and invalid—of social studies textbooks. Whatever textbook or textual materials are selected, the teacher should assume responsibility for content, emphasis and skillful interpretation.

Shaver (4) after reviewing 93 up-to-date civics and government texts concluded that use of a single text gives only minimal conceptual preparation for dealing with basic issues that affect a free nation. Shaver found that texts often advocate reflective thinking but seldom provide a supporting framework. Litt (2) concluded that civics textbooks suffer from cultural lag by failing to focus on providing a citizen with the necessary analytic and technical skills to examine the social reality of the complex contemporary American society.

1. Becker, James M. "Education for Participation in World Affairs." *National Association of Secondary School Principals,* pp. 143-150, October 1960.
2. Litt, Edgar. "Education and Political Enlightenment in America." *The Annals,* Vol. 361: pp. 32-40, September 1965.
3. Meeder, John J. "The Treatment, in American History High School Textbooks, of the Management and Control of Industry as Consequences of Industrial Change." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:4422, February 1966.
4. Shaver, James P. "Reflective Thinking Values and Social Studies Textbooks." *The School Review,* Vol. 73: pp. 226-257, 1965.
5. Urick, Ronald V. "The Reflective Approach to Social Studies Education and Historical Explanations in American History Textbooks." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 27:149A, July 1966.
6. Walker, Joseph. "Research Reports: Aid to Teaching Social Studies." *Clearing House,* pp. 179-80, November 1956.

27, 28 Use role playing and games to help students interact with and understand complex problems.

Although teachers and students may generally be reluctant to face contemporary social problems in the classroom, authorities agree that educational games and dramatizations can be an effective technique for a fair and just treatment of current social problems. Mountain (10) identified 100 educational games and used 16 public school teachers from grades one through twelve to test the games in their classes. They were found to be useful in introducing and reinforcing knowledge and skills in social studies and to capture and hold the pupils' interest.

Cristiani (5) demonstrated that informal dramatizations can improve social studies achievement for all ability groups. Goebel (7) also found that dramatizations ranked high for all students.

Simulation and more complex educational games incorporating the generalizations to be taught are being developed in all social studies areas.

1. ________________. "Computer-Based Simulations: A New Technology for Education." Audio-Visual 11, March-April, 1963. Entire Issue.
2. Abt, Clark C. "Games for Learning." Occasional Paper No. 7. *The Social Studies Curriculum Program.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Educational Services Incorporated, 1966.
3. Benson, O. "Simulation of International Relations and Diplomacy." In H. Borko, editor, *Computer Applications in Behavioral Sciences.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1962.
4. Bruntz, G. G. "The National Convention System in School Elections." *Social Education,* Vol. 28: pp. 331-2, October 1964.
5. Cristiani, Vincent A. "Informal Dramatizations in Social Studies, Grade VI." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 21:3375, 1960.
6. Dyer, J. P. "Conference Method in Social Studies Instruction." *Social Studies,* Vol. 53: pp. 142-3, April 1962.
7. Goebel, George. "Reaction of Selected Sixth-Grade Pupils to Social Studies Learning Activities Chosen by Their Teachers in the Public Schools of Topeka, Kansas." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:3755-56, January 1966.

8. Guetzkow, Harold *et al. Simulation in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963.
9. Moncreiff, Bruse. "The Sumerian Game: Teaching Economics with a Computerized P.I." *Programmed Instruction* 4, 1965.
10. Mountain, Mignonette H. "Educational Games for Classroom Use." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 21:1873, 1960.
11. Wolff, Peter. "The Game of Empire." Occasional Paper No. 9. *Social Studies Curriculum Program.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Educational Testing Service, Incorporated, 1966.

29, 30 Study comparative cultures so that the students may learn to more critically evaluate and better understand their own and other cultures.

There appears to be a general consensus that cross-culture studies improve a student's ability to understand his own and other cultures, but there is little supporting experimental evidence.

Brubaker (2) compared classes using the traditional structure of levels of government with classes using comparative government analysis. Both acquired information equally well, but the students were not tested for improvement in critical use of data.

There is evidence that actual experience with students of different sub-cultures results in a basic shift in political attitudes. Langston (6) found that lower class students in both Jamaica, West Indies and Detroit had basically different attitudes from middle and upper classes but that heterogeneous class environments resulted in working class students becoming more politicized, developing more democratic attitudes, greater support to civil liberties, and more supportive attitudes toward the political regime.

Mainer (7) found that using speakers and motion pictures in planned intergroup education reduced religious discrimination among Catholics and Protestants.

1. Becker, James M. "Education for Participation in World Affairs." *National Association of Secondary School Principals,* pp. 143-50, October 1960.
2. Brubaker, Dale L. "A Comparative Cultures Approach to the Teaching of Vocational and Citizenship Education in Secondary Schools." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:4491, February 1966.
3. Engle, Shirley H. "The Culture Concept in the Teaching of History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 14:317, 1953.
4. Gombar, W. "A Look at the Mandated World Cultures Course." *Social Studies,* Vol. 54: pp. 22-24, January 1963.
5. Hammock, R. C. "Internationalism in Education." *Clearing House,* Vol. 36: pp. 78-80, October 1961.
6. Langston, Kenneth. "Peer Group and School and the Political Socialization Process." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 48: pp. 751-58, September, 1967.
7. Mainer, Robert E. "Attitude Change in Intergroup Education Programs." in Reemers, H. H., *Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools,* pp. 122-154, Northwestern University Press, 1963.
8. Rich, S. M. "Promoting Critical Thinking in International Studies." *Peabody Journal of Education,* Vol. 39: pp. 24-7, June 1961.

31, 32 In class discussions emphasize questions which require interpretation, analysis, or evaluation rather than memory and comprehension.

Authorities almost universally agree that classroom discussions should involve students primarily in the more abstract intellectual activities. But unless teachers know how to develop students' reflective thinking skills, such approaches as inquiry and problem-solving will not motivate effective classroom discussion.

In a college course called *Man in Society,* McGarry (13) made the analysis of basic social science concepts a primary goal of instruction, and in a control class mastery of pertinent data was stressed. Although each group made gains in the ability to think reflectively, the sections in which analysis had been stressed made consistently greater gains.

Massialas (12) found that students taught by the reflective method learned as many facts as students taught by conventional methods and that students taught reflectively demonstrated greater ability to think reflectively and to utilize skills and processes associated with the scientific method. Cousins (3) found that the middle two-thirds of a reflectively taught experimental class made the most improvement on intelligence and social studies achievement tests.

Frogge (10), Fitch (9) and Cox (4) found that reflective teaching substantially improved attitudes and in no way adversely affected mastery of factual material. They found that intellectual skills can be used to teach students abstract analytical skills that can be applied in new situations. Oliver and Shaver (14) and Rothstein (15) found that critical thinking skills do not derive from acquisition of subject matter but must be taught. Both Badger (1) and Elder (6) found that using analytical questions and applying non-directive techniques to case methods resulted in developing methods of analysis and problem-solving. Wolfsen (16) emphasized the use of interrogatory words based on the latest developments in the nature of logical thought and analysis as a means of teaching that reason is sovereign but not authority.

In spite of substantial evidence that using questions which emphasize interpretation and analysis effectively develop intellectual skills, in actual classroom practice such questioning seems negligible. In analyzing 44 secondary school social studies classes, Davis (5) found that both teachers and pupils asked more recall questions than the combined total of all other types of questions asked. In these classes, the intellectual atmosphere can be characterized only as meager.

1. Badger, W. V. "Aspects of Creative Questioning in the Social Studies." *Social Studies,* 44:139-42, April 1953.
2. Brubaker, Dale. "Normative Value Judgments and Analysis." *Social Education,* Vol. 32: pp. 489-492, May 1968.
3. Cousins, Jack E. "The Development of Selected Generalizations in the Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 24:195, July 1963.
4. Cox, Charles B. "A Description and Appraisal of a Reflective Method of Teaching United States History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 22:814, 1961.
5. Davis, O. L. and Tinsley, D. C. "Cognitive Objectives Revealed by Classroom Questions Asked by Social Studies Teachers." ERIC (AERA), Ed 011 874.
6. Elder, R. E. "Progress Report on the Problem Method in Social Studies." *Teachers College Journal,* 22:4-5, October 1950.
7. Elsmere, Robert T. "An Experimental Study Utilizing the Problem-Solving Approach in Teaching United States History." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 22:3114-15, 1961.

33, 34 Use motion pictures to improve classroom learning.

There is conflicting evidence about the effectiveness of motion pictures. Ingli (3) found that using films increased fourth and fifth graders' factual learning; and, compared with non-film teaching procedures, films increased fifth graders' ability to think critically.

In comparing film strips, motion pictures and classroom printed materials, Ortgresen (5) found educational film strips more effective than sound motion pictures and film strips and motion pictures more effective than the printed materials. Curtis (2) found no significant difference between experimental groups using audio-visual devices and control groups as measured by standardized tests in world history.

Cottle's study (1) of the kinds of teaching procedures that utilize motion picture films in high school classes may account for conflicting evidence about their effectiveness. Cottle concluded that films often prove ineffective for the following reasons: failure to preview films, integrate films into class work, consider the ability level of students viewing films, introduce and follow the film with meaningful activity, conduct a student participatory rather than teacher dominated class. Whatever the method—the use of motion pictures or some other technique must be skillfully used to result in effective teaching.

Ingram (4) describes the single concept film that offers a new use for the motion picture. The film, which presents a single idea projected only visually and thus permits student-teacher discussion during the viewing, may be used as often as necessary to insure students' understanding of the concept.

1. Cottle, Eugene. "An Experiment Using World History Films with Selected Tenth Grade Pupils: Implications for the Improvement of Teaching with Motion Picture Films." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 22:499-500, 1960.
2. Curtis, Thomas E. "An Experimental Approach Related to the Teaching of World History in the Secondary School to Determine the Effectiveness of the Generous Use of Instructional Materials." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 24:5236, June 1964.
3. Ingli, Donald. "An Audio-Visual Approach to the Intermediate Grade Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 21:2967, 1961.
4. Ingram, L. W. "Innovation in the Social Studies: The Eight Millimeter Single Concept Film." *Social Education,* Vol. 30: pp. 88-90, February 1966.
5. Ortgreson, LeRoy. "The Relative Effectiveness of Selected Filmstrips and Sound Motion Pictures in Teaching Soil Conservation in Ninth Grade Social Studies Classes." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 14:642, 1954. (Filmstrips rated highest)

35, 36 In world history where there is a vast amount of historical data, stress acquisition of facts because critical thinking and other skills of scholarship are a derivative of a broad base of subject matter acquisition where understanding of pertinent data leads to an understanding of the problem.

Research shows that specific skills can be taught with no loss in acquisition of subject matter. If, however, learning of data primarily is stressed, the learning of other skills decreases. When methods designed to teach process are emphasized, there is an increase in skill development and comparable or increased acquisition of information.

Refer to bibliography for 9, 10.

37, 38 Emphasize the formal structure of government and basic information as a means of developing social confidence in civics and government courses.

As presently constituted, civics courses do not seem to appreciably affect students' political confidence or understandings.

Using a multi-variant analysis in order to include all aspects of civic education, Jennings (2) studied a national sample of high school students who were taking courses in government and found that the civics courses did not palpably change attitudes or behaviors. Mainer (3) obtained similar results.

However, a comparison of the Purdue Opinion Poll of 1960 (5) with Jennings' findings in 1967 (1) shows that students are becoming more cosmopolitan and more willingly tolerate political and social diversity.

There are indications that by changing focus and methods civics courses can begin to influence political socialization. Jennings (1) suggests that courses for high school seniors should include national and international issues as well as local and state government and should involve students in mature political concerns. Newman (4) advocates centering class discussion on political behavior instead of political structure.

1. Jennings, Kent M. "Pre-Adult Orientations to Multiple Systems of Government." *Midwest Journal of Political Science,* Vol. XI: pp. 291-317, August 1967.
2. Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)
3. Mainer, Robert E. "Attitude Change in Intergroup Education Programs." in Reemers, H. H., *Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools,* pp. 122-154. Northwestern University Press, 1963.
4. Newman, Fred M. "Consent of the Governed and Citizenship." *School Review,* Vol. 71: pp. 404-424, 1963.
5. Remmus, H. H., and Franklin, R. D. "Sweet Land of Liberty." *Phi Delta Kappan,* pp. 22-27, October 1962.

39, 40 Have your students study great men in history to help them identify with our value system and understand the meaning of our history.

At the elementary and junior high school level, pupils generally have a high positive evaluation of important but relatively remote or unknown political figures. Jaros (1) found that children in upper elementary and junior high schools positively visualize the President as a person possessing superlative qualities. He also found that these images of the President ultimately are rooted in parental environment.

Hess (3) also found that children's attitudes initially develop within the family and then shift to ideal authority figures or relatively unknown political figures. Greenstein's (2) findings that children of all ages have extremely favorable if not idealized opinions of most public officials — especially the President of the United States—corroborate Hess' results.

By using student identification with individuals to develop understanding of the democratic political system, the teacher (especially in the junior high school) can and should reinforce these supportive attitudes toward government. Even adult Americans, as Easton (1) found, are highly supportive of their government which indicates that the transfer of allegiance or identification with individuals to our political system can be made.

1. Easton, David and Dennis, Jack. "The Child's Image of Government." *The Annals,* Vol. 361: pp. 40-57, September 1965.
2. Greenstein. "The Benevolent Leader: Children's Images of Political Authority." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 54: pp. 934-43, December 1960.
3. Hess, Robert D. and Easton, David. "The Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization." *The School Review,* Vol. 70: pp. 257-265, 1962.
4. Jaros, Dean. "Children's Orientations Toward the President; Some Additional Considerations and Data." *The Journal of Politics,* Vol. 29: pp. 368-387, May 1967.
5. Jennings, Kent M. and Niemi, Richard G. "Family Structure and the Transmission of Political Values." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 49: pp. 169-184, March 1968.
6. Langston, Kenneth. "Peer Group and School and the Political Socialization Process." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 48: pp. 751-758, September 1967.

41, 42 Assign students to do work in small groups.

Grouping, which under certain conditions achieves certain purposes, has been found most effective when used with other ways of assigning students.

In teaching a world history course, Maish (4) assigned work to be done independently, in large and in small groups. Among these three arrangements, teachers ranked small group work (18% of the course work was accomplished this way) first and students ranked it second although, almost two to one, they preferred to work in discussion groups.

Beasley (1) found that whether taught by a team of teachers in various sized groups or by a teacher in a conventional class students learned the same amount of knowledge of United States history. Both students and teachers, however, preferred the team arrangement. Elias (2) found that in civics small groups were more effective only if students had access to ample and relevant resource material.

Elkins (3) found that the noisier, more impulsive, volatile and competitive students produced more creative ideas in a small and informal group while the quieter students seemed to work more effectively in a teacher-controlled situation. The supposition that the "quiet" group also might have been independently creative if they had been taught social and intellectual skills suggests that the teaching of such skills could and would prepare students to work effectively in small groups.

Perhaps change in attitudes is the most significant outcome of small group work. Langston (4) found that children's political and social attitudes and behavior patterns were greatly influenced by the climate of the class and interaction among the students. Thus, small groups probably provide an effective means for allowing this peer group interaction to happen in order to develop political and social understandings.

For further consideration of grouping, refer to 55, 56, "team teaching."

1. Beasley, Kenneth L. "An Investigation of the Effect of Team Teaching upon Achievement and Attitudes in United States History Classes." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:3256, 1962.
2. Elias, George S. "An Experimental Study of Teaching Methods in Ninth Grade Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 19:1302, 1968.
3. Elkins, K. and Porter, M. Social Science Education Consortium Publication 114, Classroom Research on Sub-Group Experiences in a U. S. History Class, Purdue University, Report #55EC Pub-114 and BR-0619, ERIC ED 014 002.

43, 44 Since civics and government courses effect little change in values, emphasize formal structure and basic information rather than values.

Researchers have found little evidence that courses in civics or government change the values or attitudes of high school students. Such studies as Jennings (3), Hess (1), and Jaros (2) indicate that the family and the earlier years of a child's education affect a high school senior's attitudes far more than civics courses.

However, there is substantial evidence that high school seniors are developing more cosmopolitan political attitudes. Jennings' (3) empirical study of a national sample of 669 seniors shows contemporary students to be more politicized and tolerant than their counterparts during the 1950's as indicated by the Purdue Opinion Polls, which Remmus and Franklin (9) report. In another study, Jennings (5) found that children do not necessarily exhibit their parents' political attitudes. Jennings also found that, except for affiliation with a political party, high school seniors had moderate to very low correspondence with their parents' attitudes and values.

It is evident that student attitudes are changing. But equally as evident is the fact that high school courses specifically designed to develop social competence simply do not accomplish their purpose.

Newman (8) believes that civics courses could more effectively aim at modifying and refining concepts underlying students' beliefs rather than aim at rejecting beliefs held by students. Marvick (7) says that teachers should emphasize political and social reality and ignore the historical legalistic foundations of government.

Trenfield (10) studied 300 students in Lubbock, Texas to determine what characteristics reflected interest and participation in adult civic education and to relate his findings to ways for improving the high school program of citizenship education. Trenfield concluded that parents' participation in civic matters and students' participation in high school activities were the most significant factors.

This need to make civics' courses socially realistic is reinforced by Marvick (7) who concludes that civic education which stresses the historical legalistic foundations of American government no longer will appeal to young negroes who demand that political and social realities be stressed to help them come to terms with their new political world.

Jennings' (4) studies suggest that the redundance of current civics courses could be effectively eliminated by the infusion of more adult-like involvement in political concerns. Langston (6) emphasizes that not only course content and organization but such factors as social class and peer group relationships critically affect change in attitude.

For discussion of grouping and attitude change, refer to 41, 42 on organizing team teaching and 61, 62, sub-groups within our society.

1. Hess, Robert D. and Easton, David. "The Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization." *The School Review,* Vol. 70: pp. 257-265, 1962.
2. Jaros, Dean. "Children's Orientations Toward the President; Some Additional Considerations and Data." *The Journal of Politics,* Vol. 29: pp. 368-387, May 1967.
3. Jennings, Kent M. "Pre-Adult Orientations to Multiple Systems of Government." *Midwest Journal of Political Science,* Vol. XI: pp. 291-317, August 1967.
4. Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)
5. Jennings, Kent M. and Niemi, Richard G. "Family Structure and the Transmission of Political Values." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 49: pp. 169-184, March 1968.
6. Langston, Kenneth. "Peer Group and School and the Political Socialization Process." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 48: pp. 751-758, September 1967.
7. Marvick, Dwaine. "The Political Socialization of the American Negro." *The Annals,* Vol. 361: pp. 112-127, September 1965.
8. Newman, Fred M. "Consent of the Governed and Citizenship." *School Review,* Vol. 71: pp. 404-424, 1963.
9. Remmus, H. H. and Franklin, R. D. "Sweet Land of Liberty." *Phi Delta Kappan,* pp. 22-27, October 1962.
10. Trenfield, T. W. "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Selected Factors and the Civics Interests of High School Students." *The Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 58: pp. 461-462, July-August 1965.

45, 46 Because the curriculum needs to be adjusted to meet the needs of students with varying backgrounds, organize classes as homogeneously as possible.

The fact that children of varying socio-economic backgrounds and ethnic sub-cultures differ in their orientation to our social and political system has been substantiated. Jaros (1) gathered data on nearly 2500 Appalacian students (grades 5-12) in eastern Kentucky and found these children less favorably inclined toward political objects than their counterparts in other parts of the country.

Litt (4) found that the schools which served communities with diverse socio-economic characteristics varied in their approach to civic education: upper middle-class community students oriented toward a realistic and active view of the political process stressing political conflict; middle-class schools emphasized the elements of democratic government and responsibilities of citizenship; working class students were oriented toward a more idealistic and passive view stressing political harmony.

It may well be that intentionally or unintentionally grouping by class or subgroup actually reverses the results that such arrangements were meant to achieve; instead of increasing students' competency to deal with the political and social problems that will confront them, teachers may be reinforcing the political orientations which students bring with them. This tendency to reinforce concepts and attitudes which students already possess characterizes the curricular redundance Jennings' (2) analysis of the impact of the civics curriculum on high school students suggests.

As previously cited (43, 44) Marvick concludes that civic education which stresses the historical legalistic foundations of American government no longer will appeal to young negroes who demand that political and social realities be stressed to help them come to terms with their new political world. To meet this critical demand, Marvick (5) advocates that political processes be incorporated by using the inquiry method.

Langston (3) (previously cited in 43, 44) using data collected on students in Jamaica and Detroit found that placing working class students in a class environment incorporating all socio-economic groups more effectively changed the students' political behavior. In these classes, students became more politicized, developed more democratic attitudes and more strongly supported civic liberties. American middle and upper class students were found to have generally more supportive attitudes toward the political regime. Furthermore it was determined that lower class students generally defer to the upper class students' attitudes and thus these students really effect changes in the lower class students' norms.

1. Jaros, Dean; Hinsch, Herbert and Fleron, Frederick J. "The Malevolent Leader: Political Socialization in An American Sub-Culture." *The American Political Science Review,* June 1968.
2. Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)
3. Langston, Kenneth. "Peer Group and School and the Political Socialization Process." *American Political Science Review,* Vol. 48: pp. 751-758, September 1967.
4. Litt, Edgar. "Civic Education Community Norms and Political Indoctrination." *American Sociological Review,* Vol. 28: pp. 69-75, February 1963.
5. Marvick, Dwaine. "The Political Socialization of the American Negro." *The Annals,* Vol. 361: pp. 112-127, September 1965.

47, 48 Use simulation games as a method of classroom instruction.

Because simulation and games vicariously involve students in socially realistic situations, these techniques appeal to many educators. Although a simulation game only approximates reality, students seem to identify basic social principles while they play the game or when they analyze their experience after completing the game. Both the game's rules and the interaction generated by role playing account for the students' apparent learning experience. Davison (3) makes this point in discussing a public opinion game and suggests that it, if properly used, becomes an effective teaching strategy.

In discussing the game of "Legislature," Coleman (2) points out that games afford students an opportunity to exercise responsibility in a realistic environment and situation.

Using simulated materials also may motivate pupils. Cherryholmes (1) reported that students playing "International Relations" indicated a high degree of interest throughout the entire unit. In fact, two-thirds of these students considered the simulated experience more valuable than regular class work. Changes in students' attitudes also were noted.

Because of its potential adaptation to technological devices (such as the computer), the use of simulation warrants significant consideration and evaluation.

1. Cherryholmes, C. "Developments in Simulation of International Relations in High School Teaching." *Phi Delta Kappan,* Vol. 46: pp. 227-231, January 1965.
2. Coleman, James. "Playing Politics in the Classroom." *The Johns Hopkins Magazine,* Vol. 15: pp. 14-22, October 1963.
3. Davison, Phillips W. "A Public Opinion Game." *Public Opinion Quarterly,* Vol. 25: pp. 210-220, Summer 1961.
4. Mountain, Mignonette H. "Educational Games for Classroom Use." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 21:1873, 1960.

49, 50 Include extracurricular activities as a part of the social studies program.

That participation in extracurricular activities develops students' good citizenship has been commonly assumed.

Ziblatt (5), however, in his study of more than 500 ninth-twelfth grade students found no direct relationship between participation in high school extracurricular activities and students' attitudes toward politics. Ziblatt did find a strong relationship between a student's social trusts and the degree to which he was integrated into the high school status system.

Ziblatt's findings suggest that only to the extent that extracurricular activities enable a student to see himself as a part of the social system do these activities become affective. Corroborating these findings, Rosenberg's (2) study of juniors and seniors in ten New York high schools found that the adolescent with low self-esteem appears to manifest all the behavioral characteristics of the politically apathetic adult citizen.

If extracurricular activities could be used to involve a student and change his identification with the school's social structure, such activities probably would enhance the teaching of good citizenship. Unfortunately (according to Ziblatt), students from the working class who would most benefit from membership and participation are least likely to join in extracurricular activities.

Trenfield (3) and Willis (4) verify the correlation between the student's involvement in the total school program and his development of political effectiveness. Trenfield found that parental civic participation and student participation in high school activities significantly corresponded to a student's interest and participation in adult civic activities.

In a followup study of 51 alumni of the class of 1938 graduating from a high school committed to democratic practices and behavior, Willis found that verbal learning seemingly did not influence adult behavior but what had been learned in actual practice did affect behavior. Miller (1) reported the success of social studies' fairs modeled after science fairs and Miller particularly stressed the effective and cooperative school and community effort in executing the idea.

1. Miller, K. E. and Caster, J. E. "For a Change-of-Pace Activity Try a Social Studies Fair." *Clearing House,* Vol. 38: pp. 229-230, December 1963.
2. Rosenberg, Morris. "Self-Esteem and Concern with Public Affairs." *Public Opinion Quarterly,* Vol. 26: pp. 201-211, Summer 1962.
3. Trenfield, T. W. "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Selected Factors and the Civics Interests of High School Students." *The Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 58: pp. 461-462, July-August 1965.
4. Willis, M. "Social Studies and Citizenship Education." *Social Education,* 24:217-218, May 1960.
5. Ziblatt, David. "High School Extracurricular Activities and Political Socialization." *The Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol. 361: pp. 20-31, September 1965.

51, 52 Avoid teaching political values because children simply reflect political attitudes of their parents; a factual approach will ultimately be more affective.

The fact that children do not necessarily share their parents' views on particular issues has been well documented. The fact that students' values are changing but that social studies' courses apparently have not effected this change also has been demonstrated.

Research concerning students' politicization and attitudes has been cited in 37-38, 39-40, 43, 44. Suggestions for improving social studies courses have been incorporated in the SAMPLER and ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY.

53, 54 Teach extensive factual information undergirding a generalization so that students will understand it better.

Educators generally agree that in order for students to understand a generalization or principle the teacher must present many facts contextually supporting the generalization or principle. However, such acquired information becomes meaningful knowledge only as and if students use it to develop and reinforce their comprehension. Both Jones (5) and Dimond (2) stress this concept.

Woods (6) found that a statistically significant increase in acquisition of facts did not lead to a significant increase in students' ability to apply the generalizations learned although a slight improvement in transfer occurred. Jennings (4) found that current courses in government effected practically no change in high school seniors' political understanding or attitudes. Furthermore, much of the data presented in government courses duplicated information students acquired from mass media, formal organizations and primary groups.

1. Chazanof, William. "An Experiment in Teaching American History." *Social Education*, Vol. 30: pp. 425-426, October 1966.
2. Dimond, Stanley E. "The Role of Generalization in Teaching the Social Studies." *Social Education*, Vol. 22: pp. 232-4, May 1958.
3. Ingram, L. W. "Innovation in the Social Studies: The Eight Millimeter Single Concept Film." *Social Education*, Vol. 30: pp. 88-90, February 1966.
4. Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)
5. Jones, S. H. "Generalizing in the Social Science Classroom." *Social Education*, Vol. 21: pp. 358-62, December 1957.
6. Wood, Leslie A. "Programmed Textual Material As a Partial Substitute for Teacher-Led Classroom Procedures in Geography." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 23:2037, 1962.

55, 56 Organize a team teaching arrangement in each of the social studies subjects to improve academic achievement.

Team teaching affords many administrative advantages such as greater organizational flexibility, more efficient use of teacher time, more effective use of resources. Team teaching also may help a teaching staff to implement methods which will improve student learning. As a technique, however, team teaching neither impedes nor facilitates academic achievement.

Comparing a group of seventh grade pupils assigned to three traditionally organized classes to another group taught by a three-man team, Hunt (3) found that staff organizational patterns did not diversely affect student achievement. Beasley (1) found no significant difference in the amount of historical knowledge students gained when he compared conventionally taught United States History classes with various sized groups taught by teams of teachers. Beasley did find, however, that both teachers and students preferred team teaching.

Weitz (8) also found no appreciably different test results obtained from regularly organized classes and classes organized in large lecture groups with relatively small group seminars. However, teachers felt that the experimental group had made gains that had not been measured.

Zweibelson (9) also found no significant differences in achievement between a control group and the experimental groups organized for team teaching and flexible grouping. Teachers, however, felt that the experimental group had significantly improved in group discipline and student motivation. For example, students in the lower quarter participated more in class discussion than their counterparts in the traditional classroom.

As measured by standardized tests and in terms of student and teacher reactions, MacCalla (5) found that students in the United States history classes combined with American Literature classes and taught by a team achieved better results.

The tendency to emphasize large group instruction which necessarily reduces small group and individual activities poses a potential flaw in team teaching. Weinswig (7) studied three experimental groups: children working in teams of three, children working in pairs, children working alone. Control groups were normally organized. In each situation, children were taught map skills and complementary factual data. Children in experimental groups showed greater achievement than those in the controlled situation. Among the experimental groups, children working in teams of three showed the greatest gains. Children working in pairs gained more than those working alone.

1. Beasley, Kenneth L. "An Investigation of the Effect of Team Teaching Upon Achievement and Attitudes in United States History Classes." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:3256, 1962.

2. Dyer, J. P. "Conference Method in Social Studies Instruction." *Social Studies,* Vol. 53: pp. 142-3, April 1962.

3. Hunt, Edward G. "Team Teaching in Junior High School Science and Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 24:4583, May 1964.

4. Ingham, George E. "Comparison of Two Methods of Self-Instruction in Teaching a Unit in Social Studies." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:1623, 1962.

5. MacCalla, Thomas A. "Coordinated Instruction of Senior High School United States History and American Literature Classes." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 26:2610, November 1965.

6. McAulay, J. D. "Initiating the Group Method." *Social Education,* p. 313, November 1957.

7. Weinswig, S. E. "Evaluation of Lessons to Teach Introductory Map Skills in Grade Four." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 23:1295, 1962.

8. Weitz, L. "Team Teaching at James Monroe High School." *High Points,* Vol. 46: pp. 4-39, January 1964.

9. Zweibelson, I. *et al.* "Team Teaching and Flexible Grouping in the Junior High School Social Studies." Journal of *Experimental Education,* Vol. 34: pp. 20-32, Fall 1965.

57, 58 Emphasize different approaches to the political process with students of different social classes. For example: with upper middle class students stress an active view of the political process; with lower middle class students emphasize responsibilities; express political harmony with working class students.

By encouraging students to adapt to their present social position, this stratified approach perpetuates the status quo. Furthermore—even though this practice will not effectively alter political attitudes or competencies, such instruction prevails.

It would seem that in order to change student behavior, a realistic curriculum must emphasize the political process and students must interact with students of other socioeconomic classes.

For suggestions about selecting methods to fit different students, refer to references cited in 47, 48.

59, 60 Use field trips to clarify and reinforce classroom learning.

As with most strategies, field trips apparently offer no inherent advantage or disadvantage. Whether the field trip more appropriately achieves ones purpose than other methods should be the criterion.

Foster (2) found some evidence that pupils who went on field trips learned comparatively more than those who participated in related activity at school. In the future, emphasizing process may enhance the effectiveness of field trips; on the other hand, various newer media such as simulation (see 49, 50) or motion picture (see 33, 34) could render field trips unnecessary. However, emphasizing a realistic curriculum that involves students in learning how to gather and apply data to social problems well could be implemented by making field trips essential to effective learning of some curriculum components.

1. Bubriski, A., and Myers, A. "Assignment: Research Paper." *Social Education,* Vol. 27: pp. 75-6, February 1963.

2. Forster, Edith C. "An Evaluation of the Field Trip in the Formation of Social Science Concepts and Generalizations." *Dissertation Abstracts,* 22:181, 1960.

61, 62 Make course work more effective in changing social attitudes by including experiences and ideas (projected in films, other media, speakers) that conflict with students' presently held attitudes.

When students are confronted with new ideas or frames of reference presented by persons espousing these ideas, students' biases or prejudices towards a group are reduced. When Mainer (4) exposed twelfth grade students to films, speakers and convocations presenting information and concepts about other groups, cultures and religions, he found that intergroup programs effectively reduced social discrimination between Catholics and Protestants. Mainer also found that when exposed to such a program, Southerners became more opposed to discrimination and that those not exposed to such a program shifted toward greater approval of discrimination.

Students' shift toward intolerance when they are exposed to the usual courses in civics or government is further verified by Horton (2) who found that those who had taken a civics course tended to be in less agreement with the Bill of Rights than those not taking the course. Horton and Jennings (3) both found that civics and government courses make almost no impact on values or behavior. When compared with students who had not taken a civics course, Horton found among those who had taken a civics course even less acceptance of the Bill of Rights. Both Horton and Jennings indicate that emphasizing facts rather than analyzing values represents a major reason for the ineffectiveness of existing civics and government courses.

For suggestions about using specific media, refer to practices in the SAMPLER and relevant reports in the ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY.

1. Becker, James M. "Education for Participation in World Affairs." *National Association of Secondary School Principals,* pp. 143-150, October 1960.
2. Horton, Roy E., Jr., "American Freedom and the Values of Youth." in Reemers, H. H., *Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools,* pp. 18-60, Northwestern University Press, 1963.
3. Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)
4. Mainer, Robert E., "Attitude Change in Intergroup Education Programs." in Reemers, H.H., *Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools,* pp. 122-154, Northwestern University Press, 1963.

Annotated Bibliography

Introduction

These summaries of research reports and articles used in analyzing the SAMPLER's strategies provide expository and contextual detail about the sources cited in the SUPPLEMENT.

This ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY also includes references about strategies (such as oral reports, class projects, the use of folk songs) that have not been incorporated in the SAMPLER.

If a teacher wishes to independently explore this material, he will discover more and effective ways of evaluating his teaching techniques.

Arnsdorf, Val E. "An Investigation of the Teaching of Chronology in the Sixth Grade." Dissertation Abstract, 20:3392-3, 1959.

Teacher-directed vs. Non-directed Learning

In this study, the effectiveness of teacher-directed instruction about chronology was compared to non-directed instruction. The teacher-directed (experimental) group received special instruction about time-line construction, writing autobiographies, relevant vocabulary. The non-directed (control) group received no special instruction about chronology. Each group devoted the same amount of time to learning social studies.

The researcher concluded (page 3992) that "An instructional program emphasizing the specific vocabulary of social studies, construction of time-lines, writing autobiographies, fosters growth and understanding of time concepts in addition to continued growth in basic work-study skills."

However, the study did reveal that even though students in the experimental group increased their ability to order dated events, they did not transfer this ability to the ordering of undated events.

This study apparently proves that if one makes a special effort to teach specific knowledge and skills to only one group, the other group will not acquire this knowledge or skills in the non-directed learning situation.

Badger, W. V. "Aspects of Creative Questioning in the Social Studies." Social Studies, 44:139-42, April 1953.

Case Method

Badger endorses the case method of instruction because it motivates students and trains them to solve practical problems. He suggests that students be taught the scientific method for solving these problems. Employing this method, a student uses primary sources rather than someone else's statement about the source. He exercises and develops his reasoning power by questioning his evaluation of a case: Was my evaluation right? Was this decision based on valid reasons? As he deals with and works through a case, the student identifies and understands the theory and principles involved.

Barcus, D. and Pottle, J. "Programming the Constitution." Social Education, Vol. 29: pp. 29-31, January 1965.

Programmed Instruction

In this study of programmed instruction in the Denver schools, 30 control classes of ninth graders were taught the Constitution in the usual way and were assigned homework of the usual type. In 30 matched experimental classes, homework consisted of a short programmed lesson. In class, the experimental group discussed the interpretation and historical background of the Constitution.

On the post-test, the experimental group had a median gain of 20 points while the control group reported a median gain of 12 points. Three months later, a repeat of tests indicated that the experimental group still was ahead of the control group.

Barratt, Thomas K. "A Comparison of the Effects Upon Selected Areas of Pupil Learning of Two Methods of Teaching United States History to Eleventh Grade Students." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:808-809, August 1965.

Recitation-Lecture vs. Classroom-Laboratory

Barratt compares 11th grade students' growth in critical thinking, use of sources of Information and mastery of factual material as they learned American History in a teacher dominated recitation-lecture class and in a classroom-laboratory environment.

A comparison of the two classes' results of the second semester's classwork in American History taught in successive years by the same teacher in the same school was made. During one year, the recitation-lecture method was used; during the other year, the classroom-laboratory technique was employed.

To measure development in critical thinking, the Watson-Glaser Test of Critical Thinking was used; growth in ability to use sources of information, the Iowa Test No. 9, "Use of Sources of Information"; growth in mastery of factual material, teacher-constructed multiple choice tests and the Crary American History Test.

Barrat found no significant difference in growth in the two groups' abilities to think critically. In ability to use sources of information, the recitation-lecture group was significantly better than the classroom-laboratory group. In mastery of factual material, there seemed to be no significant difference in growth between the two groups.

Baughman, M. D., and Pruitt, W. "Supplemental Study for Enrichment Versus Supplemental Study for Reinforcement of Academic Achievement." National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 47: pp. 154-7, March 1963.

Supplemental Study

By comparing groups of paired junior high school students in four Illinois schools, the use of homework was examined. In each school, paired groups were established and a pre-test administered.

The hypothesis to be tested was stated as: Junior High School pupils given an enrichment kind of supplemental study will show more gain as measured by achievement tests than those pupils whose assignments are of the traditional and routine reinforcement variety.

During the 8-week experiment, control groups were given traditional study for reinforcement assignments and experimental groups, assignments of the enrichment variety. On the post-test achievement administered at the conclusion of the study, results revealed no significant difference in the gain achievement of either group. In each group, the number of pupils making no gain also was similar.

The researchers concluded that the stated hypothesis would have to be rejected.

Beasley, Kenneth L. "An Investigation of the Effect of Team Teaching upon Achievement and Attitudes in United States History Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, 23:3256, 1962.

Team Teaching

In this study, the comparative effectiveness of instruction by a team of teachers working with various sized groups of high school students and a teacher working with conventional classes was investigated.

Beasley's conclusions were that in the acquired amount of knowledge of American History there was no difference among the "experimental" and the "control" students but that both students and teachers preferred the team-taught to the conventionally taught classes.

Beaubier, Edward W. "Capacity of Sixth Grade Children to Understand Social Science Generalizations." Dissertation Abstracts, 23:2439-40, 1962.

Multiple Instructional Materials, In-Depth Studies, Complex Instructional Materials

In this study, the researcher tested the assumption that sixth graders have a much higher learning capacity than usually predicted.

Before and after experiencing a program of instruction, sixth graders were tested on their understanding of three selected social science generalizations. Control groups were taught in the usual manner; experimental groups were taught with multiple and more complex materials. Students in the experimental groups achieved greater understanding of the selected generalizations than did those children in control groups.

Beaubier concludes that, "The data seems to support the conclusion that sixth grade children can learn more than typically expected. Development of understandings is facilitated by use of many types of instructional materials. Learning was greater for all experimental groups regardless of I.Q."

Becker, James M. "Education for Participation in World Affairs." National Association of Secondary School Principals, pp. 143-150, October 1960.

Multiple Instructional Materials, In-Depth Studies, Complex Instructional Materials
Even though in a "shrinking world" the need to understand foreign affairs becomes increasingly imperative, relatively few students study foreign affairs in college. In order to inform American citizens about this vital aspect of contemporary life, instruction in international affairs should be given in high schools. An improved educational strategy to accomplish this task would seem most urgent.

Becker outlines the reasons for ineffective education in international affairs and suggests some basic goals and objectives to achieve an effective program. He concludes his article by describing the North Central Association's Foreign Relations Project's effort to develop the needed resources for implementing education in foreign affairs: the project's specific objectives, processes for developing materials, participating schools.

Becker believes that citizens will gain an understanding of the contemporary world and their role in shaping its future if they learn about other major geographic and cultural areas during a systematic study of America's foreign relations.

Brubaker, Dale L. "A Comparative Culture Approach to the Teaching of Vocational and Citizenship Education in Secondary Schools." Dissertation Abstracts, 26: 4491, February 1966.

Traditional (structural) vs. Comparative Culture
In this study, the approaches in the teaching of vocational and citizenship education to foster good citizenship were evaluated. Two control and two experimental classes were selected at the Pattengill Junior High School, Lansing, Michigan.

In control classes, students were involved in a structural study of local, state and federal levels of government within the context of American history. In experimental classes, the comparative cultures' approach involved students in a study of basic social science concepts—culture and cultural analysis of particular societies varying in technological complexity.

Brubaker concluded that: in summary, there is no objective evidence that either in change of attitude or acquisition of information (as measured by the instruments employed) was the experimental more effective than the traditional approach.

Brubaker, Dale. "Normative Value Judgments and Analysis." Social Education, Vol. 32: pp. 489-492, May 1968.

Teaching Analysis Skills
Brubaker assesses the normative-analytical problem in the teaching of values and suggests ways that a social studies teacher might approach the problem.

Brubaker's premises include: prescriptions inevitably can be expected from all interested in social studies instruction; social studies teachers and their students should discriminately identify normative value judgments and analysis; usually, the way a teacher makes a prescription is more important than the particular prescription he advocates.

Acknowledging that teachers and students make value judgments in five areas, Brubaker nevertheless concentrates on the area of substantive issues. He feels that the teacher should discuss various modes of analysis that historians and social scientists use. He also feels that the various and effective uses of informants, observation, interviews, documents, statistical findings for analytical purposes probably are not discussed in most social studies classes.

In conclusion, he stresses that the teacher must be flexible enough to discuss issues that students consider important if he is going to analyze substantive issues in the classroom.

Bruntz, G. G. "The National Convention System in School Elections." Social Education, Vol. 28: pp. 331-332, October 1964.

School-Wide Project
In this project, students participated in a simulated National Convention that followed procedural practices, included the traditional demonstrations with banners and bands, and convened on a Saturday.

Delegates to the convention represented constituencies of every eight students enrolled in social studies classes that had been organized into states. In each class, students made a thorough study of its assigned state. For the most part, students campaigned on local school issues, but as candidates they also were questioned about their knowledge and opinions of state issues.

The social studies teachers felt that the project improved students' knowledge and understanding of the function and operation of a political convention.

Bubriski, A. and Myers, A. "Assignment: Research Paper." Social Education, Vol. 27: pp. 75-76, February 1963.

Student Research
In addition to other work, students in an advanced placement class in United States history were assigned a major research paper. The project's aim included students' increased understanding of history and practical experience in research techniques. Collaboratively planning and working on the project, the teacher and a librarian formulated eight immediate aims and six long-range objectives. To help students collect and incorporate mass data into the research paper, they were taken on a tour of the site for sources of data and given some instruction in using research tools.

In this project, the teachers learned that even superior students considered the experience and work worthwhile.

Carmichael, Dennis R. "Developing Map Reading Skills and Geographic Understandings by Means of Conceptual Teaching Methods." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:7176, June 1966.

Concept Teaching
Carmichael compared conceptual teaching with an expository method of teaching map reading skills and geographic understandings. His statistical analysis showed that pupils taught conceptually (even by teachers using this method for the first time) made greater improvement in map reading skills and significantly greater improvement in geographic understandings. Even without previous experience, the teachers also proved to be effective in using the conceptual method.

Carr, R. W. "Lecture Method in the Junior High School." Social Studies, Vol. 53: pp. 21-22, January 1962.

Lecture
Carr substantiates his opinion that teachers can make valid use of lectures by his refutation of arguments that a lecture not only cannot interest but actually bores junior high school students. He cites and develops four essential points about lecturing and he especially stresses the use of relevant visual material. Not only

does Carr limit the time a teacher should spend in a lecture but he thinks that other methods also should be used.

In conclusion, Carr deals with evaluation and describes some possible evaluative methods.

Casteel, P. "Utilizing the Methods of the Political Scientist in the Social Studies Classroom." Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. 40: pp. 219-227, 1962.

Multi-technique-analysis-case study
Casteel examines the status of political science in the secondary school social studies. He then suggests some political scientist's techniques that might work in the classroom.

He suggests that the teacher might examine the areas of values by approaching the problem through several different methods. For example, students might visit a political party's headquarters and record their observations. Casteel also cites some examples of case studies that might be used as an approach. Students also might conduct surveys and analyze their findings.

Chazanof, William. "An Experiment in Teaching American History." Social Education, Vol. 30: pp. 425-426, October 1966.

Concept Teaching
The State University College of New York at Fredonia developed an experimental program of classes for high school students in the area. Once weekly for ten weeks, the students attended a two-hour class for which they read an assigned document, composed a single sentence thesis suggested by the material and cited reasons to support the thesis.

Class sessions, including lectures and discussion, enabled the students to acquire more background and probe more deeply into fundamental issues. During and at the conclusion of the program, students showed increasing ability to identify principles and to explore issues.

Cherkis, C. and Held, T. "Translating Social Studies Concepts into Action." National Association of School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 45: pp. 85-90, September 1961.

Class Project
Motivated by discussion in a social studies class, students in a girls' high school in New York City decided to undertake a research project about brotherhood and selected the school integration problem in New Orleans for their study.

Through a newspaper story, the class became interested in a mother involved in the New Orleans' desegregation situation. The students invited the woman to visit their school, raised the money to pay her expenses, and presented her with a brotherhood award.

In the opinion of the girls' teachers, the students learned far more from the project than they would have learned by discussing brotherhood in regular class sessions.

Cherryholmes, C. "Developments in Simulation of International Relations in High School Teaching." Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 46: pp. 227-231, January 1965.

Simulation
Cherryholmes describes an adaptation of Northwestern University's simulation materials for International Relations for use in a college preparatory course in American Government.

In the "game," the world is organized into hypothetical countries endowed with certain resources, advantages and disadvantages. Representing each country, three students play specific roles: they control the country's destiny, exchange goods and services, form into power blocks, negotiate treaties, engage in armed conflict. These players determine the direction, progression and outcome of the game.

Cherryholmes reported a high degree of students' interest throughout the entire unit. Over two thirds of the students considered the simulated experience more valuable than regular class work. The author also noted changes in students' attitudes.

Chilcott, J. H. "A Proposal for Unification of Secondary School Courses Through Anthropology." Clearing House, Vol. 26: pp. 387-393, March 1962.

Objective Analysis-Anthropology
Chilcott reviews the current interest in anthropology and defines the discipline. He describes ways that anthropology might be used in social studies to help students to become objective, avoid value judgments, and understand human behavior. However, Chilcott emphasizes that anthropology is not "the panacea for all ills" nor the source of "answers to all questions."

As the curriculum now includes many separate and isolated courses, Chilcott does not recommend that anthropology be taught in a separate course. He does feel that some instruction in anthropology might reduce or eliminate existing barriers and help students to develop valid generalizations.

He describes four anthropological approaches and suggests ways to incorporate them in the social studies curriculum.

Coleman, James. "Playing Politics in the Classroom." The Johns Hopkins' Magazine, Vol. 15: pp. 14-22, October 1963.

Simulation
Coleman believes that using games in a classroom creates an opportunity for students to participate in and exercise responsibility in a real life situation. In his opinion, this activity alleviates a principal defect in contemporary schools—the disparity between the students' present environment and the actual world for which they are being prepared.

Because general methods used in social studies classrooms complement a future rather than current environment, students not only do not but see little reason to learn. By creating simulated environments, classroom teachers can convert vaguely realized future needs into immediate and perceived needs.

Coleman reports that—almost without exception—students playing his game of "Legislature" (completely described in the article) demonstrated a high degree of interest. He also noted the students' surprising ability to supress their personal feelings while playing their roles in the game.

Cottle, Eugene. "An Experiment Using World History Films with Selected Tenth Grade Pupils: Implications for the Improvement of Teaching with Motion Picture Films." Dissertation Abstracts, 22: pp. 499-500, 1960.

Using Motion Picture Films
In this study, various ways of using films in teaching high school classes were enumerated and the efficiency of these procedures was evaluated. Cottle concluded that some teachers in violation of basic psychological principles of learning use films inefficiently.

Cottle cites the following reasons for such inefficiency: failure to preview films, teacher-dominated teaching that restricts student participation in the film showings, failure to integrate the film into the classwork, failure to consider the ability level of the students, showing films without introductory or follow-up activities.

Cousins, Jack E. "The Development of Selected Generalizations in the Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 24:195, July 1963.

Instruction Based Upon a Model of Reflective Thinking
For one semester, a representative 8th grade class at University School, Indiana University was taught by the "reflective thinking method."

In evaluating the results, the following instruments were used: Cooperative Social Studies Test for Grades Seven, Eight, Nine; Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal; teacher-constructed test designed to evaluate development of reflective thinking skills. Three evaluators also evaluated eight taped classroom discussions.

On the Cooperative Test (measuring recall and retention), the mean score gain was significant at the .01 level of confidence. On the Watson-Glaser and the teacher-constructed tests (measuring reflective thinking), the mean score gains were significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The evaluators generally agreed on improvement in reflective skills. The middle two thirds of the class as determined by intelligence and social studies achievement made the most noticeable improvement. In the ability to identify and evaluate problems, the group improved more than in the ability to test cause and effect ideas by logic and factual information.

Cox, Charles B. "A Description and Appraisal of a Reflective Method of Teaching United States History." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 22:814, 1961.

Reflective Thinking

In this study, Cox examined the effect of using the reflective method of teaching United States history on high school students' achievement and ability to think critically by comparing results of an experimental group taught "reflectively" and a control group taught "traditionally."

Cox concluded that each group showed an equal acquisition of facts but neither group (according to standardized tests) showed improvement in critical thinking abilities.

However, "Tape and calendar analyses showed that the improved reflective thinking skills demonstrated by the students were a result of the principal method" and "the environmental and substantive changes produced by the reflective method were conducive to critical thinking. Students so taught improved in their ability to deal critically with questions of fact and value."

Cox, C. B. and Cousins, J. E. "Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools and Colleges; Experiments in Method." Indiana University School of Education Bulletin, Vol. 40: pp. 43-61, November 1964.

Multi-Method

Cox and Cousins describe and discuss the results of the following studies dealing with various experimental approaches to the teaching of critical thinking, building conclusions, hypothesizing: Oliver and Shaver Study; Smith and Meux Study; The Indiana Experiments in Inquiry; Rothstein Study; McGarry Study; Gilbert Study; Devine Study; Rust, Jones and Kaiser Study; Bloomfield Study.

The authors examine methods used by the experimenters and comment on related effects. Without questioning the validity of the various studies' findings, Cox and Cousins do question and discuss some of the related results.

Cristiani, Vincent A. "Informal Dramatization in Social Studies, Grade VI." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 21:3375, 1960.

Dramatization-Role Playing

Cristiani studied the effects of informal dramatization on sixth graders' achievement and interest in social studies. The study involved 213 students in eight classrooms where each child participated in at least one dramatization.

Cristiani concluded that there was an improvement in social studies achievement: children with I.Q.'s of 90-109 showed greatest gains in social studies information; those with I.Q.'s of 110 and above, in social studies study skills and reading achievement.

Students also made a statistically significant gain in mean score on a Bogardus Social Distance Scale and on a Social Studies Information Test. In interest and attitude toward social studies, improvement also occurred.

Curo, Dwight M. "An Investigation of the Influence of Daily Pre-Class Testing on Achievement in High School American History Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 24:5236, June 1964.

Daily Test on Facts from the Study Assignments for a Six-Week Period
Ten classes, 250 students in eleventh grade American History, were divided into control and experimental groups and only the experimental groups were given the daily pre-class tests.

Curo concluded that there was no significant difference in achievement between the two categories of classes.

Curtis, Thomas E. "An Experimental Approach Related to the Teaching of World History in the Secondary School to Determine the Effectiveness of the Generous Use of Instructional Materials." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 24:5236, June 1964.

Saturation Enrichment Procedure with Varying Audio-Visual Devices
Curtis studied the effectiveness of using the cross-media audio visual method of providing saturation enrichment to supplement the basic film series used by Wendt and Butts in world history classes. The study involved two classes (29 pupils per class) at the Southern Illinois University High School.

As measured by a standardized world history test, there was no significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

Darrin, Garvey L. "Economics in the Elementary School Curriculum: A Study of the District of Columbia Laboratory Schools." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 21: 95-96, 1959.

Teaching Economic Concepts
The study's major purpose was to determine how well elementary school children can learn basic economic concepts. Conducted in 47 classes (kindergarten through sixth grade), the project emphasized developmental learning.

Darrin found that elementary school children could achieve a satisfactory understanding of basic economic concepts and that, "The effectiveness of teaching the topics varied almost without exception directly with the grade level: the higher the grade, the more effective the understanding of economics subject matter."

Davis, Ozro L., Jr. "Learning About Time Zones: An Experiment in the Development of Certain Time and Space Concepts." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 19:2861-2862, 1958.

Teaching Geography Concepts
The experiment's purpose was to determine whether instruction in concepts of time and space relating to geographic time zones would benefit fourth, fifth and sixth graders. From each grade level, an experimental and a control group of white middle class children were selected. Children in the experimental classes were taught a unit specifically incorporating material related to the development of an understanding of geographic time zones.

Davis concluded that the experimental groups had significantly profited from the instruction and that this learning persisted over time (one month). He further states that, "Adequate concepts are fundamental to clear thinking . . . This experiment indicates that instruction in aspects of the concepts of geographic time and space relating to time zones is profitable earlier than formerly thought possible. Rigid grade placement of various elements of the understandings considered in this experiment is impossible and undesirable."

Davis, O. L. and Tinsley, D. C. "Cognitive Objectives Revealed by Classroom Questions Asked by Social Studies Teachers." ERIC (AERA), Ed 011 874.

Asking Questions
To determine the range of cognitive objectives implicit in the questions asked by student teachers and their pupils in high school social studies classes, 44 classes

were observed according to the teacher-pupil question inventory (TPQI) developed by the investigators, who classified each question as: memory, interpretation, translation, application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, affectivity, procedure.

Results showed that both teachers and pupils asked more memory questions than the combined total of the other categories. Next in frequency were interpretation and translation questions. (These categories are combined into one comprehension, described by Bloom as the lowest form of intellectual activity.) To elevate the intellectual climate of these classes and improve question-asking techniques, Davis and Tinsley recommended that more attention be given to different cognitive objectives in social studies classes and that specific attention be given the questioning process in pre-service education.

Davison, Phillips W. "A Public Opinion Game." Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. 25: pp. 210-220, Summer 1961.

Simulation

Properly utilized, this game provides an effective teaching strategy and simulates social reality in the social studies classroom. Playing citizen's roles in the community, students develop and present opinions about important local issues: uses of local tax funds, treatment of unwed mothers on welfare, possible enactment of a law requiring the installation of exhaust-purification mechanisms on automobiles.

By playing the game, students realistically experience and perceive the pressures and influences that shape opinion. Students learn to distinguish between a public and a private opinion: they learn that many interacting factors and cross-pressures influence an individual's judgment and point of view; they learn that external social forces as well as an individual's psychological responses affect his formulation of opinion.

Davison's analysis of the game's results showed that a few individuals who occupy strategic positions or exhibit strongly held attitudes appreciably influence the spectrum of opinion reflected in the final tally.

Dimond, Stanley E. "The Role of Generalization in Teaching Social Studies." Social Education, Vol. 22: pp. 232-234, May 1958.

Using Generalizations

For many years, a serious flaw in the teaching of social studies was the failure to generalize. More recently, however, the stress on using rather than merely acquiring information has developed. Dimond suggests the use of facts to build generalizations. He believes that this method provides a context within which facts can be inductively acquired and organized and provides an opportunity to deductively test the truth or falsity of generalizations.

Dodge, Orville N. "Generalization and Concept Development as an Instructional Method for Eighth Grade American History." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 27:1632-A, December 1966.

Concept Generalization vs. Traditional

During an eight-week experiment, a group of 64 selected pupils was taught by a teacher who used the concept-generalization approach and emphasized key ideas. A group of 59 selected pupils was taught by a teacher who used the traditional approach and emphasized facts and adhered strictly to the textbook. Each group used the same textbook and covered the same units of history.

Dodge found that in learning and organizing historical knowledge, the concept-generalization approach group made a statistically significant gain over the traditionally taught group. Among the pupils, there was no significant difference in learning historical facts.

Dodge concludes that concept-generalization development involves pupils in an active, meaningful, interesting, transferable and unified process of learning and produces significantly greater achievement than the traditional approach entailing memorization, simple question-answer technique, strict adherence to the textbook and stress on acquiring factual knowledge.

In developing concept-generalization skills, pupils need guidance and practice and they particularly need to learn that conceptualization is a step-by-step and evolving process.

Dufty, David G. "Folk Songs in the Social Studies in the United States and Australia: an Exploratory Study." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 27:137-A, July 1966.

Folk Songs as Inquiry Tools for Social Studies Instruction

From Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives,* purposes (emphasizing the inquiry method) were selected for using folk songs in social studies. Dufty collected data from Ethnomusicology, interviews with people interested in popularizing folk songs, and comparing Australian and American folk songs.

Because folk songs supplement written history, chronicle the social history of the "little man," and provide vicarious experience for the students, Dufty concluded that they could be effectively used in teaching social studies.

Dyer, J. P. "Conference Method in Social Studies Instruction." Social Studies, Vol. 53: pp. 142-143, April 1962.

Educational Conference

Dyer describes a project that involves students in selecting a topic for and planning and conducting a conference.

In a conference dealing with mental health, the state director for mental health and a nationally prominent psychiatrist addressed the students. The students then met with a psychologist or a psychiatrist who conducted work sessions with the group.

To prepare for the conference, students acquired information from reports, articles, textbooks, films and other sources.

Dyer describes a second conference on juvenile delinquency and concludes his article by citing both the problems and the advantages in using the conference method.

Easton, David and Dennis, Jack. "The Child's Acquisition of Regime Norms: Political Efficacy." The American Political Science Review, Vol. LXI: pp. 25-38, March 1967.

Placement of Civics and Self Identity

In this paper, Easton and Dennis hypothesize that in order for a political system to perpetuate, it somehow must generate and provide for at least a minimal level of support for some kind of regime. (They identify the components of a political regime as some minimal constraints on the general goals of its members, rules or norms governing behavior, and structures of authority through which members of the system act in making and implementing political outputs—prinicipally accomplished by political socialization.)

The authors deal only with political efficacy, one of several critical norms of the American regime. To achieve political efficacy, citizens must firmly believe that the individual is in fact politically effective, that not only can political and social changes occur but that the individual citizen can participate in effecting such change.

In this research based on a sample of 12,000 children aged seven through thirteen, Easton and Dennis studied the origins of political efficacy. Their findings suggest that third graders have acquired a sense of efficacy but that this early attachment to this norm does not uniformly occur in all children. The learner's ability definitely relates to the process; the child's I.Q. and social status affect his response to the norm. Nevertheless, 83% of the sampled eighth graders still felt highly efficacious.

This early acquisition conceivably could minimize or counteract a child's subsequent adult experiences that undermine the ordinary citizen's convictions about his political role and importance. In this context, Easton and Dennis' research registers a plea for a stronger and more systematic program of citizenship education to replace the current unsystematic civics instruction in the elementary school.

Easton, David and Dennis, Jack. "The Child's Image of Government." The Annals, Vol. 361: pp. 40-57, September 1965.

Reinforcement and Supportive Attitudes Toward Government

In this report about their research on the political socialization of elementary school children, Easton and Dennis focus on the principle that the political socialization of new members provides extensive and significant support for a social construct as varied, extensive and demanding of social resources as government.

Their data suggests that in the United States a supportive image of government is being widely and consistently reproduced for young new members. In their test group, the average grade school child appears to experience some rather basic changes in his concept of government that move him toward a cognitive image conforming to a democratic political system's requirements. Other data suggests that adults also are highly supportive of their government. Thus, these exploratory data illustrate the growth of this deeply rooted supportive sentiment. The research further suggests how young children develop this supportive attitude and how the curriculum can be synchronized with this developmental process.

Elder, R. E. "Progress Report on the Problem Method in Social Studies." Teachers College Journal, Vol. 22: pp. 4-5, October 1950.

Case Study and Non-Directive Discussion Techniques

Elder presented the students with real life problems and used non-directive techniques during class discussions of the problems. Students developed an analytical method that they could use in other courses and in non-academic situations.

Elder reports improvement in oral expression, the students' sense of responsibility for class activity, and democratic student-teacher relationships. However, he does stress that cases must be carefully selected and that this method can be jeopardized in numerous ways.

Elias, George S. "An Experimental Study of Teaching Methods in Ninth Grade Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 19:1302, 1958.

"Teacher-centered" vs. "Student-centered"

In this study, Elias compared "teacher-centered" and "student-centered" methods of teaching ninth grade civics to determine their effectiveness in creating a learning atmosphere fostering democratic behavior and enabling students to acquire the subject matter.

In the experimental (student-centered) group, the teacher functioned as a consultant in planning the work that students accomplished in sub-groups. In the control (teacher-centered) group, the teacher planned the work with students participating only within the framework she established. For the most part, the students worked as an entire class group. Both groups studied two units—"National Government" and "State and Local Government."

Elias concluded that if an abundance of resource material is not available the teacher-centered method is more effective. "An abundance of resource material appropriate to the topic under study and the age level of the students seems essential for the 'student-centered' method of teaching ninth grade civics."

Elkins, K. and Porter, M. Social Science Education Consortium Publication 114, Classroom Research on Sub-group Experiences in a U.S. History Class, Purdue University, Report #55EC Pub-114 and BR-5-0619, ERIC ED 014 002.

Grouping-Creativity
Elkins and Porter investigated the effect of subgroup participation on the generation of new ideas. During eight meetings, a class was organized for full class sessions, in subgroups, and for individual work. Class "A" was quieter, more deliberate, more stable, more dependable but less able than class "E" which was noisier, more impulsive, more volatile and more competitive.

To measure student satisfaction with classroom activity, a reaction questionnaire was used; to trace the origin of student ideas, an idea questionnaire. Verbal behavior of the class and teacher was recorded on tape.

In class "E", production of ideas co-varied with freedom of participation; but under teacher control, class "A" produced more ideas.

Elsmere, Robert T. "An Experimental Study Utilizing the Problem-Solving Approach in Teaching United States History." Dissertation Abstracts, 22:3114-3115, 1961.

Problem-Solving
Elsmere tested the hypothesis that using a problem-solving approach to teach United States History produces significantly greater pupil achievement than using a traditional approach. In the study, eleventh graders were selected for an experimental and a control group respectively taught by the two methods: problem-solving involved four steps for finding tenable solutions to historical problems; the traditional approach involved strict adherence to the textbook and stressed acquisition of facts.

Elsmere found that the experimental group not only learned and retained more historical facts than the control group but also learned and retained problem-solving abilities that the control group had not acquired.

"It was concluded that a problem-solving approach to teaching United States History, which requires pupils to think critically and to use a reasoned approach to controversial issues, produces significantly greater pupil achievement than a traditional approach which involves memorization, emphasizes factual acquisition, and uses simple questions and answer techniques."

Engle, Shirley H. "The Culture Concept in the Teaching of History." Dissertation Abstracts, 14:317, 1953.

Using the Culture Concepts in Organizing and Teaching History Courses
In this study, Engle examined the social scientists' culture concept to derive useful principles for organizing and teaching history courses.

After extensively surveying, analyzing and evaluating literature dealing with this subject, Engle concluded that the culture concept provides a basic method for comparative study that traditional methods for teaching history lack, a basis for more dependable appraisals of human behavior, and a basis for objective study of human behavior that can mitigate unreasoned and extreme chauvinism and ethnocentrism.

Erickson, E. F. "Study of a Problem." Clearing House, 26:82-86, October 1951.

Problem Method
In a twelfth grade class, students were stimulated by seeing the film, *Gentleman's Agreement*, to work on a unit in racial and ethnic relations.

Using the problem method, teacher and students planned the unit that dealt with a vital topic and utilized actual cases. Without losing sight of the course's objectives, the teacher non-directively helped students to perceive the meaning of Myrdal's term—the American Dilemma.

Exton, E. "Teaching the American Way of Life." American School Board Journal, Vol. 143: pp. 32-34, December 1961.

Varied Approaches
Exton discusses the need for contemporary American citizens to understand the

polity and culture of the United States and the tenets and objectives of communism and she describes various methods that American teachers use to achieve this understanding.

States which provide teachers' guides for this purpose are listed and the materials briefly described. More detailed discussions of Massachusetts' television approach, New York State's recommended method, Louisiana's instructional program, Arizona's "Ten-point Program for Teaching Americanism," and Virginia's program illustrate the various techniques for teaching the American way of life.

Faris, Gene. "Improve Your Teaching Effectiveness." Social Studies, Vol. 53: pp. 174-176, October 1962.

Discussion-Film

Faris describes a technique for motivating class discussion of a problem by forming committees and using a film. After identifying the problem, the teacher divided the class into six committees who then elected a chairman and a recorder. In each committee, members presented their views which the recorder noted. The recorder then read his notes and the chairman conducted a discussion culminating in the group's choice of the most significant point.

After six minutes, the teacher convened the class and asked each committee to report its choice of an important point that she then listed on the blackboard. (If two committees had selected an identical point, one group then chose another important idea to be listed.) Students then viewed the film and discussed its treatment of the problem.

In this experience, students became aware of alternative solutions to problems and the necessity for selecting one benefiting the individual and society. Whether the class agreed on or solved the problem mattered less than the fact that students perceived alternative solutions and accepted the responsibility for making a valid and responsible choice.

Fink, Lawrence A. "The New Rochelle High School Honors Course in American History." Dissertation Abstracts, 27:701A, September 1966.

Use of Primary Source Documents

In this honors' course, students read and discussed primary source documents rather than the usual textbook in American History. They also submitted written reactions and interpretations of the material.

Fink found that this approach (sharply contrasting to the traditional drilling for New York State Regents and national examinations) did not lower the grade expectations of the students in the program.

Based on his findings, Fink recommended the high school library's acquisition of additional materials—particularly multiple copies of paperbacks. He concluded that students graduating from such programs will expect and merit a higher level and quality of instruction in college history courses.

Fitch, Robert M. "An Experiment in the use of Source Readings from American History to Develop Selected Reflective Thinking Skills." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:6546-6547, May 1966.

Reflective Thinking vs. Enriched Reading

By using source readings correlated to text units in Bragdon and Mc Cutcheon's *History of a Free People,* Fitch studied the effect of instruction on reflective thinking and achievement (mastery of content).

In five Iowa high schools, a representative sample of 11th grade students in American History was assigned to seven control and seven experimental classes In all these classes, students read the source materials. In control classes, this reading was enrichment only; in experimental classes, a manual designed to assist in the development of reflective thinking skills was utilized.

All students were pre and post-tested with the "Test of Critical Thinking in Social Science" and "Cooperative Topical Tests in American History," numbers 6 and 7.

Two of the seven experimental groups demonstrated a significantly greater gain in reflective thinking while five showed no difference. In achievement, there was no significant difference.

Forster, Edith C. "An Evaluation of the Field Trip in the Formation of Social Science Concepts and Generalizations." Dissertation Abstracts, 22:181, 1960.

Field Trips

This study tested the hypothesis that the process of gaining, reinforcing, deepening, and broadening the basic social concepts and generalizations essential to modern living is facilitated by taking children on field trips to see in operation those facts about which they have been reading and talking.

Two fourth grade classes in each of four schools were used for this study. In each class, four chapters in the fourth grade textbook were taught. After each chapter had been studied, one group took a relevant field trip and the other group remained in school and participated in "worthwhile" activities related to the completed chapter.

By comparing results of a pre-test (taken before the field trip and/or classroom activities) and a post-test, learning was measured.

Forster's study concludes that:

1. A significantly greater degree of learning took place as a result of the field trips than of classroom activities.
2. In the item analysis of test questions, comparison figures seem to indicate that the experimental group achieved more growth in understanding. However, on no test item was there any statistically significant result to clearly substantiate the greater impact of the field trip.
3. There was no indication of greater interest among the experimental group.
4. There was no significant difference in the retention tests taken by each group.

Fortune, Jimmie C. "Instructional Set, Cognitive Closure, and Test Anxiety in the Presentation of Social Studies Content." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:6547-48, May 1966.

Lecture vs. Programmed Instruction

Twenty intern teachers in the Stanford Teacher Education Program conducted this experiment in their social studies classes. Each intern was given an outline of the social studies content to be taught and a re-definition of the set and closure variables previously studied in Stanford's pre-internship programs. The interns were instructed to organize the content for a 15-minute lecture, to inject a strong instructional set by telling students what to expect and to execute cognitive closure by thoroughly reviewing and synthesizing the material. A programmed learning textbook incorporating the same lecture content was compared to the lecture treatment of the same substance.

The experiment did demonstrate that using a preplanned set and systematic closure enhances the learning process in a lecture situation. In the use of programmed materials, closure enhanced learning but test anxiety impedes this process.

Frogge, Robert M. "The Relative Effect of Two Methods on the Achievement of Certain Modern Problems' Objectives." Dissertation Abstracts, 24:5240, June 1964.

Comparison of Achievement and Attitude Taught in a Reflective and an Authoritarian Manner

Assumed shortcomings of the social studies in meeting citizenship objectives prompted this study concerned with the influence of method on the achievement of citizenship objectives. Frogge negatively hypothesized that, "There is no significant difference in the achievement of certain citizenship objectives between students taught by an authoritarian method and those taught by a reflective method in a high school problems course."

Students in both groups took pre and post-tests in general social studies achievement, critical thinking and knowledge of the principles of democracy.

Frogge found that the only significant difference between the groups was the students' more favorable attitude toward the teacher using the reflective method.

Fry, E. B. "Glossing—a Method to Aid Social Studies Teachers with Reading Instruction." California Journal Secondary Education, 32:90-92, February 1957.

Teacher Reading to the Students

Glossing read from the text to his students and intermittently clarified or interpreted terms and concepts that students might not immediately understand.

Fry suggests that the social studies teacher might effectively use this method if the text seems too difficult for the grade level or pupils have a minor reading problem. To use this method, a teacher must be thoroughly knowledgeable about the subject and equally as perceptive about students' reading comprehension and response to his explication.

Gardner, William E. "The Relationship Between Time Sense, Evaluating Information, and Achievement in American History." Dissertation Abstracts, 22:1056, 1961.

Emphasis on Time Sense and Evaluation of Information

Gardner studied the relationship between achievement in American History and teaching the skills of time sense and evaluating information. The study dealt with the following question: Does teaching these two abilities in a seventh grade American History course produce as great or greater achievement than does teaching history with no attention to their development?

Two experimental and one control group of students were used in this investigation. In experimental group I, teaching the abilities of time sense and evaluating information was stressed. In experimental group II, these two skills were moderately emphasized. In lieu of instruction in these skills, students in the control group worked with factual review exercises.

Gardner concluded that:

1. A heavy emphasis upon teaching the key skills was associated with achievement in American History.
2. Growth in time sense was best developed when a heavy emphasis was placed on this ability.
3. There was no evidence to reveal how the skill of evaluating information may be best developed.

"The general recommendation was made that skills, particularly those of time sense, should be part of courses in American History. The true effects of skills teaching are not discernible, but pupils who study skills in history achieve better than those who do not."

Gayles, N. R. "Lecture versus Discussion." Improving College and University Teaching, 14:95-99, Spring 1966.

Lecture vs. Lecture-Discussion

In order to compare the effectiveness of lecture vs. lecture-discussion Gayles reviewed the research done since 1940. She found that neither method was generally superior and that, apparently, a method's effectiveness depends upon the teacher, the students, and the kinds of principles, concepts and information being taught.

Gill, Clark C. "How Eighth Graders Interpret Indefinite Quantitative Concepts." Social Education, 25:344-6, November 1961.

Gill, Clark C. "Interpretation of Indefinite Expressions of Time." Social Education, 26:254-6, December 1962.

Time and Quantitative Concepts
In these articles, Gill reports his findings that the use of indefinite time expressions conveys different meanings to different pupils.

The fact that students in higher grade levels demonstrate a better grasp of the meaning of such expressions suggests a correlation of time sense and maturity. The fact that the use of qualitative terms elicited a wide range of responses from eighth graders suggests that textbooks often communicate vague and erroneous information to many students who use them.

Gill concludes that textbook writers should use precise rather than indefinite terms and that teachers also should develop points of reference or meaningful boundaries as they interpret such terms.

Goebel, George. "Reaction of Selected Sixth-Grade Pupils to Social Studies Learning Activities Chosen by Their Teachers in the Public Schools of Topeka, Kansas." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:3755-56, January 1966.

Slow Learners
Rapid, normal and slow sixth-graders were identified. Various materials including vocabulary lists, readings for discussion, graphs and charts were tried out with these pupils. All materials appealed more to the rapid and normal pupils than to the slow sixth-graders.

However, the slow pupils found reading for discussion and map-making most appealing and the making of vocabulary lists, graphs and charts least attractive.

All the pupils ranked making murals and dramatizations very high.

Gombar, W. "A Look at the Mandated World Cultures Course." Social Studies, Vol. 54: pp. 22-24, January 1963.

Cross-Culture
Gombar describes the world cultures course required for graduation in Pennsylvania and recommends that the course be expanded.

He states that in addition to class discussion, other approaches should be tried. Emphasizing the teacher's role and ingenuity, Gombar suggests that the teacher should try to invoke a regional milieu by using various visuals, materials and resource people in the classroom. Such an approach and materials will enable students to visualize peoples in a contemporary rather than historical context. Teachers should project the world realistically—neither "bad" nor "good."

Greenstein. "The Benevolent Leader: Children's Images of Political Authority." American Political Science Review, Vol. 54: pp. 934-943, December 1960.

Identification with Individuals
In this article on political socialization (the first of several subsequently published in *Children and Politics),* Greenstein analyzes responses to a paper and pencil questionnaire that 659 4th-8th grade pupils in New Haven, Connecticut filled out early in 1958. The questionnaire specifically dealt with political information, attitudes and interests and more broadly with matters of potential political relevance such as media behavior and ego ideals.

Greenstein's findings about attitudes toward political authority, strength of partisanship and the role of social class and sex in affecting political awareness seemed significant. He documented that children of all ages expressed extremely favorable if not completely idealized opinions not only of most public officials but especially the President of the United States whom they perceive as a benevolent leader.

Greenstein considers this early idealization very significant and believes it might be the seed from which Graves later generalized attachment to the whole political system.

Gross and McDonald. "Classroom Methods: The Problem Solving Approach." Phi Delta Kappan, 39:259-65, March 1968.

Problem Solving

Gross and McDonald presented a detailed discussion of research to date (1958) on the problem solving method. In their judgment, researchers have not dealt with nor have they provided usable answers to many specific questions.

The research does suggest, however, certain lines of inquiry that educators can fruitfully pursue and clearly indicates the need for much more research on particular problems.

Gross, R. E. "Problems Approach." N.E.A. Journal, 44:455, October 1955.

Problems Approach

Gross briefly describes the problems approach to social studies education. He believes that teachers are becoming more aware of the inherent values in the problems approach and that they are using this method more effectively. Teachers now involve pupils in actual problem-solving experiences and show them how to formulate their own conclusions rather than merely teaching answers to given problems.

Hammock, R. C. "Internationalism in Education." Clearing House, Vol. 36: pp. 78-80, October 1961.

Cross Cultural-Primary Sources

Hammock identifies eight purposes for teaching social studies. He then analyzes the role of the social studies teacher in promoting an essential and better understanding of the non-western world by examining its culture. In this teaching, Hammock would include ethics, religion, concept of man, art and music, literature, taboos, general values and the educational systems. In learning about ethics, morals and other relevant aspects of non-western culture, primary sources such as books of faith yield insights about Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism. Unless one learns about and appreciates non-western cultures, Hammock believes that one cannot hope to understand the contemporary world, events and peoples.

Hess, Robert D. and Easton, David. "The Role of the Elementary School in Political Socialization." The School Review, Vol. 70: pp. 257-265, 1962.

Planning of Civics and Identification

Finding that high school students exhibited little change in political attitudes, Hess and Easton decided to study the nature of elementary pupils' political attitudes. They found that these pupils generally were quite politically aware even though they had not received any appreciable amount of systematic citizenship education in their elementary schools.

This research, apparently indicating elementary pupils' awareness of political authority and respect for a politician's motives and actions, documented the following conclusions:

1. Attitudes toward political authority initially are mediated through the family.
2. The child transfers his image of the ideal parent to the image of ideal authority of distant and relatively unknown political figures.

3. The child becomes attached to a political party by identification with his family.
4. The positive evaluation of political authority becomes differentiated into components of role performance and components of personal merit.

In general, Hess and Easton believe that their findings imply that educators should recognize that the elementary rather than secondary school level represents a crucial and realistic time for incorporating citizenship training in educational practice.

Horton, Roy E., Jr. "American Freedom and the Values of Youth." in Reemers, H. H., Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools, pp. 18-60, Northwestern University Press, 1963.

Youth's Values: Freedom

Horton's study indicates that a significant proportion of this nation's high school seniors does not accept the basic democratic principles and freedoms guaranteed by the Bill of Rights. Furthermore, the students who reject these rights tend to accept the tenets of fascism.

The study indicates that taking a course in United States' Government or Civics does not constructively change students' beliefs in democratic values. In fact, in dealing with different items related to freedoms guaranteed by the Bill of Rights, students who had studied Civics tended to consider the Bill of Rights even less favorably.

Horton suggests that possibly names, dates, etc. have been overemphasized and that the values of freedom (upon which a democratic society's existence depends) should be stressed.

Hunt, Edward G. "Team Teaching in Junior High School Science and Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 24:4583, May 1964.

Three-Man Team Teaching vs. Traditional

Hunt compared the academic achievement and personality development of two groups of seventh grade pupils at Groton Junior High School, Warwick, Rhode Island. Group A included 75 pupils who had been taught science and social studies by three-man "teams"; group B included another 75 pupils who had been taught in the traditional manner—one teacher teaching science and another teaching social studies. Although Groups A and B covered the same subject matter, each was exposed to a different pattern of staff organization.

It was assumed that the team approach (group A) would more effectively utilize teacher competencies and thus effect greater achievement for the students. However, Horton found that staff organization patterns *did not* significantly affect academic achievement of pupils in either science or social studies.

Ingham, George E. "Comparison of Two Methods of Self-Instruction in Teaching a Unit in Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 23:1623-24, 1962.

Programmed Self-Instruction and Small Group Meetings with Teacher

Ingham wanted to find out whether using self-instruction methods rather than conventional classroom practices would significantly increase students' achievement in a Social Studies unit.

Eighth grade students in American History were used in this study. In control groups, teachers used specially written study guides and a detailed teaching unit. In experimental groups, the self-instruction materials included a programmed text and work sheets to be used with film strips, viewers and tape recorded presentations. In some experimental groups, teachers held scheduled conferences with small groups of pupils. In other experimental groups, students worked exclusively with the self-instruction materials.

Ingham concluded that:

1. Each of the methods produced statistically significant achievement.
2. Among the three methods, there was no significant statistical difference.
3. A significant difference in favor of the self-instruction methods was indicated for high achievers on the pre-test.

Ingli, Donald. "An Audio-Visual Approach to the Intermediate Grade Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 21:2967, 1961.

Sound Films

Ingli's study dealt with the potential effectiveness of using sound films to teach facts and critical thinking skills in social studies. In this experiment, teachers alternately used films and non-film teaching procedures in presenting sequential units to fourth and fifth grade students.

At both grade levels, the film technique increased factual learning and improved students' vocabularies.

However, only the fifth graders showed an increased thinking ability and significant retention of learning as measured by "repeat" tests at the end of the year.

Ingram, L. W. "Innovation in the Social Studies: The Eight Millimeter Single Concept Film." Social Education, Vol. 30: pp. 88-90, February 1966.

Visual Materials

Ingram suggests that the 8mm single concept film may alleviate the social studies teacher's problem in using films lasting 40, 50 or 60 minutes and projecting a mass of material.

Running from two to five minutes, the 8mm film can be repeated in order to enforce a concept or momentarily stopped for viewing a single frame. The single idea or concept often is presented inductively and, since there is no sound commentary, students and teacher can pose and discuss relevant questions during the show.

Jaros, Dean. "Children's Orientations Toward the President: Some Additional Considerations and Data." The Journal of Politics, Vol. 29: pp. 368-387, May 1967.

Children's Image of Political Authority

Jaros examines and empirically supports the thesis that certain childhood socialization processes as well as politization account for the generally high positive evaluation that children have of the President. Based on the assumption that these early positive images of the President underlie later tendencies to obey and respect authority and thus generate political stability, Jaros' assessment is important.

Using a sample of 746 Detroit school children in grades four to eight, Jaros attempts to show that the children's generally positive image of the President includes more facets than a benevolent figure possessing superlative qualities. By using the variable of authoritarianism, Jaros postulates a coercion-oriented perception of political authority in some children whose images of the President are rooted ultimately in the parental environment.

In this pioneering study, findings are fragmentary and show low correlations. Nevertheless, Jaros' conclusions somewhat corroborate the belief that formal education in civics, as presently organized, plays a rather insignificant role in the political socialization of children.

Jaros, Dean; Hirsch, Herbert and Fleron, Frederick J. "The Malevolent Leader: Political Socialization in an American Sub-Culture." The American Political Science Review, June 1968.

Motivation Using Student Background
Operating on the assumption that most of the political socialization research has been conducted in urban, industrialized communities with largely middle class children, Jaros, Hirsch and Fleron studied the political socialization of children in a sub-culture group in order to determine the political values of children from the rural, racial or ethnic sub-cultures within the United States.

In March, 1967, they gathered data from 2,432 children (grades five-twelve) in the Appalachia region of eastern Kentucky. Because of the region's poverty and isolation and the differing cultural norms of Appalachia, the researchers classified these white children as a sub-cultural group.

Their findings differ dramatically from the traditional political socialization research that reflects young people's perceptions of governmental institutions and officers as benevolent, competent, functional and powerful. The children surveyed in this research are less favorably inclined toward political objects. Moreover, these children apparently do not alter this negative image as they mature. Finally, the research suggests that the direct transfer of political values from the family to a child may be more complicated than previously supposed.

Jennings, Kent M. "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." (Unpublished: available from the author at the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.)

Government Courses and Change in Political Behavior
Rejecting political scientists' and social educators' opinion that high school civics courses enhance political socialization of older adolescents, Jennings hypothesizes that these courses effect little change in a spectrum of political variables commonly considered significant outcomes of civic education.

In this empirical study, Jennings used a national sample and a complex multivariant analysis permitting an assessment of a wide range of variables. His findings indicate that incremental changes are so infinitesimal as to raise serious questions about the worth of teaching these government courses—at least in their present form. According to Jennings, their principal weakness lies in redundancy or duplication of cues from other sources of information—particularly mass media, formal organizations and primary sources. He contends that students not taking civics probably are exposed to these other sources as much as students enrolled in civics.

This indictment substantially supports those social educators who advocate changing the current social studies curriculum. Anyone interested in improving secondary school civics education would find this report informative and thought-provoking.

Jennings, Kent M. "Pre-Adult Orientations to Multiple Systems of Government." Midwest Journal of Political Science, Vol. XI: pp. 291-317, August 1967.

Standards of Achievement and Attitude
This research report (one of a series reporting the Survey Research Center's study of political socialization among high school seniors) deals with Jennings' specific task of constructing an attitude or cosmopolitan scale. Jennings defined cosmopolitanism as orientation to the larger geo-political domains or as a continuum from local to state to national to international. Scores on this scale were related to other important political variables such as political knowledge, political interest and willingness to tolerate political and social diversity.

The Survey Research Center elected to study high school seniors because for most individuals this year concludes the conscious concentrated efforts directed toward their civic education. Furthermore, the conditioning effects of education, the home and other pre-adult influences have been virtually completed—a significant time to evaluate their consequences. Since the high school senior has been only slightly conditioned by adult-like involvements in political concerns, his orientations to different levels of politics may be examined without allowing for the possible contaminating effects of adult socialization.

During the spring of 1965, interviews were held with a national probability sample of 1669 seniors, distributed among proportionately selected public and non-public secondary schools. Within each school (selected with a probability proportionate to the estimated size of its senior class), from 15-21 randomly designated seniors were interviewed with a response rate of 99%. The 15-21 range reflects an attempt to compensate for the lack of precise, complete enrollment figures at the time the sampling frame was constructed.

Jennings found that cosmopolitanism is strongly related to knowledge and discourse about larger political domains, interest in public affairs, evaluation of politics at multiple levels, and tolerance of political diversity. Compared with their parents, the students in this national survey are significantly more cosmopolitan—a probable result of both life cycle and generational effects.

These conclusions are especially noteworthy when compared with the result of the Purdue Opinion Polls of the 1950's. This survey empirically shows that contemporary students are both more politicized and tolerant than their counterparts in the 1950's.

It would seem important for social researchers to attempt to determine the variables affecting this significant change.

Jennings, Kent M. and Niemi, Richard G. "Family Structure and the Transmission of Political Values." American Political Science Review, Vol. 49: 169-184, March 1968.

Value Change

Using a national probability sample of high school seniors, Jennings and Niemi attempted to assess the relative and differential impact of the family as an agent of political socialization. Data from the seniors and their parents were utilized to examine transmission patterns; parent-student pairs were used as the units of analysis. Correlations were obtained for a variety of political values, and a brief look at religious values provided a point of comparison.

Jennings and Niemi tentatively reject the concept in political socialization research that the transmission of political values from parent to child is almost perfect. They found that, depending upon the values considered, parent-student correspondences widely differed though party identification remained relatively high. For other values, parent-child congruences tapered off to moderate (at best) to very low on attitudes toward specific issues, ratings of socio-political groupings, political cynicism and political cosmopolitanism. In the religious area, similar patterns prevailed. Life cycle effects, other socialization agencies, and unstable attitudes apparently accounted for some of the digressions from the model which posits high rates of transmission.

Jennings' and Niemi's article projects the school's potential impact on teenagers' political values if the civics curriculum were effectively organized.

Johnson, Fred A. "Depth versus Breadth in Teaching American History to High School Students." Dissertation Abstracts, 22:2718-19, 1961.

Depth Teaching versus Breadth Teaching

Johnson attempted to assess the effect of depth teaching on eleventh grade students' achievement (permanent learning and immediate and long term gains) in an American History course. In this study, the experimental group studied five units in American History in depth. Two control groups studied 10 units encompassing the entire field of American History. The variables of teacher, method of teaching and the experiment's length of time were held constant.

Johnson's main conclusions were:

1. In immediate or long term achievement, the experimental and control groups did not differ. The fact that students were tested for factual knowledge of

the entire field of American History suggests the significance of this finding.

2. On each achievement test, students in both groups made significant gains.
3. In immediate or long term achievement or gains in achievement, none of the differences among students of equivalent academic ability in depth or breadth courses was significant.

In general, Johnson concluded that, "High School students may be taught American History by either the depth or breadth method without lowering factual achievement." (Page 2719.)

Jones, Annie L. "Graded Study Guides for Sixth Grade Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 19:2027, 1958.

Graded Study Guides and Paired Practice

In this study, Jones compared the instructional effectiveness of study guides adapted to three different ability levels with the effectiveness of teacher-directed methods excluding the use of study guides.

In the experiment group, pairs of sixth graders independently worked with the study guides. Sixth graders in the control group were taught in the conventional manner.

Jones concluded that, "These materials used with virtually complete self-direction on the part of pupils have had practically the same value as the regular teacher-directed method of teaching social studies." (Page 2027.)

Apparently, teacher-direction of pupils using study guides is as effective as the more conventional techniques of teacher-directed instruction. Furthermore, Jones found that the pupils enjoyed working in pairs and with the study guides.

Jones, S. H. "Generalizing in the Social Science Classroom." Social Education, Vol. 21: 358-62, December 1957.

Description of the Proper Use of Generalization

To be used meaningfully in the social studies classroom, generalizations must be well supported by factual information that the student needs to know as he reasons toward the generalization. Jones cites nine examples of Jackson's presidency that he used to test generalizations. He concludes this article with the judgment that a generalization's meaningfulness is in exact proportion to the student's comprehension and knowledge of the enumerated particulars corroborating the generalization. Thus, the way a generalization is determined affects its worth.

Jones, William E. "An Investigation of the Case Method of Instruction in Selected Eighth Grade Civics Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, 25:4002, January 1965.

Case Study

Jones conducted this exploratory study to identify problems in using the case method of teaching the Bill of Rights in eighth grade civics classes and to determine reasons for using the case method in similar situations.

From two Berkeley (California) junior high schools, Jones used a sample of 437 students enrolled in 14 social studies classes.

Jones concluded that these students appeared to make significant gains in knowledge and understanding of the Bill of Rights and that they showed more positive attitudes toward principles inherent in that document.

Kingdom, Frederick H. "A Comparison of the Achievement of Fourth Grade Pupils Using Factual and Story Forms of Social Studies Materials." Dissertation Abstracts, 19:253, 1957.

Factual vs. Story Forms

Kingdom attempted to ascertain whether using the factual or the story form of social studies reading material made a significant difference in fourth grade pupils' factual recall. Pupils were given the factual and the story forms in alternating sequence to prevent any influence that a repetitive order of presentation might induce.

Kingdom concluded that each form comparably stimulates fourth grade pupils' factual recall of social studies materials.

Langston, Kenneth. "Peer Group and School and the Political Socialization Process." American Political Science Review, Vol. 48: pp. 751-758, September 1967.

Grouping and Social Attitudes
Langston examined the effect of the school's less formal environment on political socialization. The impact of the "class climate" in peer groups and schools upon the reinforcement or resocialization of political attitudes and behavior patterns was assessed.

In this empirical study, Langston dealt with the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between class homogeneity-heterogeneity of peer groups and schools and the isolation of lower class students from the political and economic norms of higher class students?
2. Does the heterogeneous class climate of both the peer group and the school have a cumulative effect upon the resocialization of working class political attitudes and behavior patterns?
3. What are the cross cultural implications of these findings for conscious manipulation of the school environment?

Langston used 1284 students in Jamaica, West Indies and 1349 primary and secondary students in Detroit, Michigan in collecting his primary data.

In his article, Langston reports the following findings:

> In a heterogeneous class environment, working class students are more politicized, have more democratic attitudes, give greater support to civil liberties, and have more positive orientations to rating.
> In this environment, American middle class and upper class students have generally more supportive attitudes toward the political regime.
> The fact that lower class students generally defer to the upper class students' attitudes suggests the potential for introducing "modernizing" norms to lower class students by assigning them to heterogeneously grouped classes.

Langston cautiously concludes, however, that the educational objectives in a given situation should be carefully surveyed before school administrators decide to manipulate peer grouping.

Litt, Edgar. "Civic Education Community Norms and Political Indoctrination." American Sociological Review, Vol. 28: 69-75, February 1963.

Diverse Approaches to Civic Education
Realizing that all national educational systems indoctrinate their youth with the political order's basic tenets and values, Litt attempted to assess the uniformity of this process.

In this research, Litt posited two questions:

> Do different socio-economic communities differ in the kinds of textbooks they use in civic education?
>
> Do these communities' differing political attitudes and norms affect the process of indoctrination?

Litt surveyed three New England communities having different socio-economic characteristics. In each, he interviewed community leaders, administered questionnaires to civic education classes and central groups, and made a central analysis of civic education text books. Among these communities, he found that leaders' attitudes, effects of courses on students' political attitudes, and political themes in civic education tests were non-uniform.

In the upper middle class community, students were oriented toward the dynamic and conflicting elements of the political process. In the lower middle class community, students' training in the elements of democratic government was supplemented by an emphasis on the citizen's responsibility. In the working-class community, students were oriented toward a more idealistic and passive view emphasizing political harmony.

Litt, Edgar. "Education and Political Enlightenment in America." The Annals, Vol. 361: pp. 32-40, September 1965.

Information vs. Process
Litt investigates the reasons why so many studies dealing with the effect of formal civics' education on political participation and attitude formation find that there is little if any correlation.

Litt hypothesizes that because civics' education has not kept pace with the social and historical circumstances in American society its influence has been minimal. He attributes this apparent inadequacy to outmoded civics' textbooks and instruction.

Litt cites two models — the rational activist and the integrative consensual — that, in his opinion, contemporary conditions have rendered anachronistic. The rational activist model projects the beliefs of 19th century liberalism: emphasis on rational deliberation in the formation of public policy; open exchange of opinion in face-to-face meetings; strong confidence in self-governing men's ability to decide what is best for the community. The integrative consensual model utilizes civics education as an overt instrument of state policy to "Americanize" citizens, particularly immigrants.

To solve the problem of ineffective civics education, Litt proposes a model that he terms segmental-organizational. In his opinion, this model will produce a representative citizen: this individual will be highly trained in analytic and technical skills to perform an intellectual and specialized task. To produce such a person, students' training will stress acquisition of the more abstract and impersonal conceptual units dealing with a complex contemporary American society and the training will focus on social reality.

Luciano, V. D. "Reading Skills Approach in Social Studies." High Points, Vol. 46: pp. 64-67, January 1946.

Development of Reading Skills
Luciano presents and comments on a sample lesson for teaching slow learners in social studies. In planning this lesson, the curriculum was adapted to the students' characteristics by formulating an aim and creating a motivation that would appeal to and stimulate the slower student.

The teacher assigns a list of words used in the lesson and pivotal questions. Each question is presented in paragraph form and the students respond by writing complete sentences. Whenever feasible, questions about current events are incorporated in the assignment.

During a study period, students work on their assignments and the teacher provides individual assistance. In vocabularly work, students are encouraged to use dictionaries. The teacher tries to vary the lesson as much as possible in order to sustain students' interest. The teacher also prepares and distributes a daily summary that students may keep.

In addition to reading skills, students develop skills in reading maps, charts and graphs, and interpreting cartoons.

M

MacCalla, Thomas A. "Coordinated Instruction of Senior High School United States History and American Literature Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:2610, November 1965.

Team Teaching vs. Traditional
MacCalla studied the effectiveness of a coordinated program of instruction combining eleventh grade classes in United States History and American Literature. As measured by standardized tests, student achievement in each subject and (as indicated on questionnaires) students' and teachers' reactions to the program were determined.

MacCalla concludes that, "The findings supported the belief that 'better' results are produced in the team environment than are produced in the traditional setting . . ."

Mainer, Robert E. "Attitude Change in Intergroup Education Programs," in Reemers, H. H., Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools, pp. 122-154, Northwestern University Press, 1963.

Intergroup Education and Attitude Change
This study dealt with the effectiveness of intergroup education programs in producing changes in attitude toward discrimination. Mainer equated intergroup education with the use of movies, speakers and convocations about other groups, cultures and religions.

Mainer found that:

12th graders became more opposed to social discrimination than the younger pupils did.

Pupils with higher vocabulary levels became more opposed to social discrimination than pupils with less verbal aptitude.

In schools with intergroup programs, Catholics became more opposed to discrimination than Protestants; in schools with no intergroup instruction, Catholics became more approving of discrimination while Protestants either did not change or shifted toward greater opposition to discrimination.

After exposure to intergroup education, southern students shifted toward opposition to discrimination; those not exposed to intergroup education shifted toward greater approval of discrimination.

Maish, David L. and Peryor, Robert E. "A Project in World History." Social Studies, pp. 221-225, November 1965.

Grouping
In this project, conducted in a summer school course in World History, approximately 18% of the work was done in small groups (five people) involved in role playing, discussing problems, etc. Most of the course work, however, was accomplished in lectures to large groups, discussions in large groups, and students' independent study.

After the course had been completed, students and teachers rated the effectiveness of each strategy on a scale indicating "1" as most effective, "2" less effective, etc. Teachers rated the small group activity "1"; students, "2."

Among the 44 students, 28 preferred the size of the small group for discussion purposes. In selecting the most valuable activity, 21 students chose large group discussion; 12, small group activity; 11, large group lecture.

Marvick, Dwaine. "The Political Socialization of the American Negro." The Annals, Vol. 361: pp. 112-127, September 1965.

Description vs. Process
Using a national sample from the National Opinion Research Center, Marvick attempts to explain how events related to the Negro revolution in the United States (1955-1965) have "resocialized" the Negro.

Marvick found that Negroes' attitudes toward public affairs widely varied in different regions and among different generations. His findings also suggested that some Negroes evaluate their political opportunity much as their counterparts in groups of underprivileged whites. Marvick found that young Negroes were becoming involved in the American political process but that their local opportunities to learn new skills and roles in civic affairs determined whether they could become totally involved.

Marvick concludes that civics educators must develop courses that enable Negro youth to relate to and deal with the political and social realities of their new political world. In such courses, emphasizing historical legalistic foundations of American Government necessarily would be less relevant.

Massialas, Byron G. "Description and Analysis of a Method of Teaching a High School Course in World History." Dissertation Abstracts, 22: pp. 1529-30, 1961.

Reflective Thinking

Massialas studied the comparable effects of using the reflective thinking method and the narrative method in teaching World History to high school students. Using control groups taught by the narrative method and experimental groups taught by the reflective thinking method, Massialas assessed the students' performance in class discussion and paper-and-pencil tests.

Massialas concluded that:

1. Students taught by the reflective thinking method learned as many facts as students taught by the conventional method.
2. Students taught by the reflective thinking method demonstrated appreciably more ability to think independently than students taught by the conventional method.
3. Students taught by the reflective thinking method learned how to use skills and processes associated with the scientific method.

Massialas, B. G. and Zevin, J. "Teaching Social Studies Through Discovery." Social Education, Vol. 28: pp. 384-7, November 1964.

Discovery and Inquiry

Massialas and Zevin describe the use of inquiry and discovery and illustrate this process and technique by excerpting actual student-teacher discussions. In order to participate directly in the process of discovery and inquiry, students had to identify and define problems, select methods of attack, formulate and test hypotheses, and in the context of observed evidence arrive at a defensible generalization.

The authors concluded that—without exception—the students effectively applied the techniques of inquiry and discovery.

McAulay, J. D. "Initiating the Group Method." Social Education, p. 313, November 1957.

Group Method

McAulay explains how a teacher can initiate and develop group method instruction in the classroom. Because different groups of students will react differently to this method, it should be gradually introduced and used. This approach, which involves students in cooperative activity, should be particularly appropriate for the social studies teacher who—among other goals—tries to teach children how to work together cooperatively.

McGarry, Eugene L. "An Experiment in the Teaching of Reflective Thinking in the Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 22:2721, 1961.

Problem-Solving and Analysis of Basic Social Concepts

McGarry hypothesized that if analyzing basic social science concepts were made the primary aim of instruction, students would make even greater gains in reflective thinking than in social studies courses taught only by problem-solving and reflective thinking methods.

McGarry tested this hypothesis with experimental and control groups taking a course called Man in Society at the University of Minnesota's General College.

In the experimental group, the primary objective was to master selected social science concepts although the problem-solving technique also was used. By investigating fundamental social concepts, the students increased their understanding.

In the control group, the primary objective was to understand problem areas by acquiring and using pertinent data to solve or explicate the problems.

Students in both groups achieved significant gains in their ability to think reflectively. In the experimental group, however, students demonstrated even greater gains in developing this ability.

McGarry concludes that instruction in problem-solving and in analyzing basic social science concepts "is basic to citizenship education."

McGoldrick, J. H. "Teaching Research Techniques in the Social Studies." Social Studies, Vol. 54: pp. 15-17, January 1963.

Classroom Research
McGoldrick suggests a sequential approach to teaching basic research techniques to young students in social studies. Initially, the teacher assigns a textbook problem that the student can investigate by referring to his textbook. Then, a simple task that can be done successfully might be for the student to study the Gettysburg Address and answer the question, "What kind of man wrote this speech?"

The next step might involve examining a number of speeches for the same purpose.

At the teacher's direction, more involved questions requiring much more research then could be progressively assigned.

McPhie, W. E. "Student Reports and the Social Studies." Social Education, Vol. 30: pp. 96-98, February 1966.

Student Reports
Mc Phie believes that careful teacher planning for students' reports would eliminate the sterile factual accounts (based upon or copied from encyclopedias) that students usually give.

In order to effectively use reports as a teaching method, the teacher should determine their logical assignment and provide ample time for preparation.

Teacher and student should confer about the report's purpose and substance and relevant sources of information. The student also needs help in synthesizing the material.

After the report has been presented, there should be adequate classroom discussion and exchange of opinion about its contents and meaning.

Meeder, John J. "The Treatment, in American History High School Textbooks, of the Management and Control of Industry as Consequences of Industrial Change." Dissertation Abstracts, 26:4422, February 1966.

Textbooks
Meeder analyzed high school textbooks to determine how adequately each dealt with and explained the social-cultural consequences of industrial development in the United States.

Meeder concluded that the texts inadequately presented topics that significantly show how America's industrialization generated social-cultural changes and current social problems.

Michener, J. A. "Who is Virgil T. Fry?" Clearing House, Vol. 38: pp. 521-524, May 1964.

Emphasis Upon Class Interest
Michener creates a fictitious situation in which he is a beginning teacher. All the

faculty members agree that he is not a good teacher; and, after examining the records, the fictitious Mr. Fry also decides that he is not a good teacher.

However students consider him an excellent teacher: Mr. Fry stimulates their thinking and centers class activities around them. Furthermore, Fry challenges them to defend their ideas and consequently they read and do independent research in order to be able to substantiate their thoughts and views.

Miller, K. E. and Caster, J. E. "For a Change-of-Pace Activity Try a Social Studies Fair." Clearing House, Vol. 38: pp. 229-230, December 1963.

Educational Fair

Although many high schools produce a science fair, few have sponsored social studies fairs. Miller and Caster describe a social studies club's presentation of a fair.

Three categories of entries were planned and the projects classified as written, demonstrations, and displays. Teachers assisted the students but in no way were involved in the judging. Political personalities and other individuals not identified with the school awarded the divisional prizes and the grand prize won by a group of students who wrote and directed a history of the United States staged with appropriately periodic music and costumes. To subsidize the fair, an entry fee of fifty cents was charged. In both the school and the community, the social science fair was considered to be very successful.

Moore, Jerry R. "An Experiment in Programmed Instruction: Voting in Iowa, Ninth Grade Civics." Dissertation Abstracts, 25: pp. 5156-5157, March 1965.

Programmed Instruction vs. Traditional

From five Iowa junior high schools, 60 ninth grade students were randomly chosen to form experimental groups who were removed from classes and, unsupervised by instructional personnel, worked through a programmed unit based on *Voting in Iowa.* In control groups students received conventional instruction supplement by readings in *Voting in Iowa.*

Moore found:

1. As measured by a classroom test, no significant differences between the groups' mean scores.
2. From one level of reading social studies' achievement to another, differences between mean scores for conventional and programmed instruction did not significantly vary.
3. Programmed instruction was 27% more efficient than conventional instruction.
4. Through programmed instruction the greatest saving of instructional time was effected by students with the highest reading scores.
5. Students who completed programmed materials most rapidly scored higher on the unit achievement test.

Mountain, Mignonette H. "Educational Games for Classroom Use." Dissertation Abstracts, 21:1873, 1960.

Educational Games

Mountain conducted this study to test the following hypotheses:

1. Educational games can serve as useful teaching aids in introducing and reinforcing knowledge, attitudes, and skills in social studies.
2. Educational games can be used effectively for purposeful learnings in grades one through twelve.
3. Educational games can capture, hold, broaden, and deepen the interests of pupils.

Mountain selected 100 educational games for this study. In grades one through twelve, 16 public school teachers tested the games in their classes and evaluated them on a questionnaire. Data from the questionnaires and interviews with the teachers supported the conclusion that, "All three hypotheses tested in the study were correct."

Nadis, Maxwell L. "A Status Study of Homework Practices and Attitudes of Detroit Ninth Grade Social Studies Teachers and Ninth Grade Students including a Pilot Experimental Study of Two Ninth Grade Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, 26: pp. 5301-5302, March 1966.

Written Homework vs. Reading Text Only

Nadis used 400 ninth grade students in world history classes in the Detroit public schools. Two hundred students learned world history by studying only the textbook; 200 students did written homework assignments in addition to studying the textbook.

Nadis' findings indicated no statistical difference in achievement (as measured by teacher-made objective tests) between experimental and control groups.

Newman, Fred M. "Consent of the Governed and Citizenship." School Review, Vol. 71: pp. 404-424, 1963.

Changing Values using Concepts

In a comprehensive analysis of studies of political behavior, Newman suggests that the liberal 19th century ideal—government by the consent of the governed—needs to be restructured in the context of changes in our 20th century urban, industrialized and complex society. Unless teachers present the contemporary nature and significance of this concept, they cannot achieve one of the common objectives of citizenship education—to inculcate in the student a belief in this democratic principle.

Newman believes that teachers might present the "consent" concept as a citizen's or the people's opportunity to select officials to whom they delegate governmental power and responsibility. In this realistic approach, students will accept the concept's validity and intrinsic value. Furthermore—contemporary students will understand and view this concept as a unifying bond among free men.

Newmann, F. M. and Oliver, D. O. "Case Study Approaches in Social Studies." Social Education, Vol. 31: pp. 108-113, February 1967.

Case Study

Pointing out that the term case study method inaccurately describes the actual process, Newmann and Oliver show how the method (which for many years educators have used) can be used in most subject areas and with various materials in the classroom.

The authors cite examples of cases written as a story, vignette, journalistic narrative, document, research data, text and interpretive essay.

In whatever form, case studies are used to illustrate foregone conclusions or to stimulate controversy and debate about unresolved issues that cannot be stated in definitive and conclusive terms.

Oliver, D. W. and Shaver, J. P. "An Analysis of Public Controversy: A Study in Citizenship Education." A Report from the Laboratory for Research and Instruction, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1962; Cooperative Research Project 8145 (Contract #SAE-551).

Critical Thinking and Controverial Issues

125 junior high school students were given an experimental curriculum including

a unit on critical thinking that enabled them to learn and apply an abstract and analytical system to their work in other units.

In the two-year course, the experimental group studied units in Birth of the American Republic, Introduction to the Structure and Principles of American Government, Application of Analytic and Political Concepts Using Specific Controversial Cases, and such problem units as School Desegregation, the American Indian, Fair Competition, Business Monopoly, Organized Labor and the New Deal.

Oliver and Shaver report the following conclusions:

1. Students can learn an abstract system of critical thinking and apply it to relatively simple cases based on political and social issues.
2. Students do not suffer any relative loss of historical knowledge in a course focused on contemporary problems.
3. In this curriculum, students seemed to show a greater interest in public issues than their peers enrolled in more traditional courses.

Ortgresen, Le Roy. "The Relative Effectiveness of Selected Filmstrips and Sound Motion Pictures in Teaching Soil Conservation in Ninth Grade Social Studies Classes." Dissertation Abstracts, 14:642, 1954.

Filmstrips and Sound Motion Pictures

Ortgresen compared the effectiveness of film strips and sound motion pictures in teaching Soil Conservation to ninth graders and determined whether the use of visual materials adversely affected students' reading about the subject.

Two experimental groups and one control group participated in the study. In one experimental group, a selected series of film strips and printed instructional materials were used; in the other experimental group, the selected sound motion pictures and the printed materials were used. In the control group, only the printed instructional materials were used.

Ortgresen concluded that:

1. Educational film strips are more effective than sound motion pictures.
2. Educational film strips and sound motion pictures are more effective than the use of printed materials in the classroom.
3. The use of visual materials does not adversely affect the quantity of reading that students do.

Gain in knowledge and change in belief represented the criteria for "effectiveness."

Otting, Kenneth A. "Programmed Materials Versus the Textbook: A Comparison of Effectiveness, Efficiency, and Motivational Aspects in a Twelfth Grade American Government Course." Dissertation Abstracts, 25: pp. 5157-8, March 1965.

Programmed Materials vs. Textbook

To determine the comparative effectiveness of programmed instruction in American Government and conventional instruction including textbook assignments, Otting used 114 12th grade students in experimental groups and 101 12th grade students in control groups. 20 programmed chapters in American government were constructed for the experimental students to use.

Otting found that, in two schools, the programmed groups had significantly benefited. In the other two schools, test results indicated no significant difference between experimental and control groups.

Parker, D. and Econopauly, N. "Teaching Civil Liberties by the Case Method." Social Education, Vol. 25: pp. 283-284, October 1961.

Case Study

A Purdue survey of students' attitudes about basic democratic concepts impelled

Parker and Econopauly to be concerned about the teaching of social studies. In their opinion, using case studies to teach civil liberties to high school students would improve the instruction.

The authors illustrate the idea that this approach might enhance students' positive attitudes about the Bill of Rights by citing four cases and relevant questions that teachers could use. The authors also recommend that teachers initially deal with simple concepts and then develop the more complex matters to be presented and interpreted.

Remmus, H. H. and Franklin, R. D. "Sweet Land of Liberty." Phi Delta Kappan, pp. 22-27, October 1962.

Indoctrination and Student Acceptance

Remmus and Franklin analyze young people's support of the Bill of Rights as evidenced by findings in the Purdue Opinion Poll, 1960. The poll, consisting of 24 questions (such as, "Persons who refuse to testify against themselves should either be made to talk or severely punished.") was designed to assess teenagers' support of social issues inherent in the Bill of Rights.

In this article, the authors substantiate their material by documenting the Purdue Opinion Polls' accuracy in predicting outcomes in national elections. According to the authors, Purdue's results compare favorably with findings of Gallup, Roper and other pollsters.

According to the Purdue study:

1. Teenagers accept the Bill of Rights with respect to religious freedom, trial by jury, and the rights of property. For the most part, teenagers endorse an individual's right to refuse to testify against himself.
2. Teenagers indicated negative attitudes about constitutionally guaranteed rights of foreigners and minorities in general.

(Editor's note: refer to Jennings' studies (1967 and 1968) indicating a liberalizing of teenagers' attitudes.)

Rich, S. M. "Promoting Critical Thinking in International Studies." Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. 39: pp. 24-27, June 1961.

Cross Cultural Discussion

In an effort to improve his seventh grade students' attitudes toward people in other lands, Rich developed and used the following concepts in teaching various world cultures:

1. People in the world differ greatly. After illustrating this fact, Rich dealt with language, geography, etc. to explore and account for the differences.
2. There are basic characteristics shared by all peoples. As the class identified and explored these common traits, students raised additional questions about the similarities. Questions about right and wrong and ethical conduct, however, were somewhat too philosophical for seventh graders to comprehend.
3. Two thirds of the world's population is dark skinned. This statistic prompted students to question theories of racial superiority and to speculate about ways for solving racial problems in the United States.
4. There is a population explosion in the world today. Some students did not know that this condition existed and all students asked questions about the various facets of the problem.
5. Revolution is a characteristic of today's world. Most students realized that

this was happening and they were concerned about the United States' role in international affairs.

Root, Paul R. "Speed Reading: Its Relation to High School Achievement in English, History, Mathematics and Science in Hot Springs, Arkansas." Dissertation Abstracts, 25:1791, September 1964.

Course in Speed Reading as Related to Improved Grades
Root's problem was to determine the speed reading program's effects on grades at the junior high school level. Root concluded that in history and science but not in English and mathematics, the program significantly influenced the grade point average.

Rosenberg, Morris. "Self Esteem and Concern with Public Affairs." Public Opinion Quarterly, Vol. 26: pp. 201-211, Summer 1962.

Self-concept and Motivation
Rosenberg tested the validity of two polarized hypotheses about the effect of a student's negative self-concept on his interest in public affairs. Some behavioral scientists believe that striving for political power and understanding correlates with the desire to compensate for feelings of inadequacy. Other behaviorists hypothesize that political apathy may be due to the fact that an individual's inner conflicts so deplete his energy that he has none to expend in public affairs.

By studying high school juniors and seniors in 10 randomly selected New York City schools, Rosenberg collected data that clearly supported the "apathy" theory although the data did not establish a strict cause and affect relationship:

1. Students with a low self-esteem are relatively uninterested in public affars.
2. They are less likely than others to say that they are interested in political matters.
3. They are less likely to report that they follow news of national or international importance in newspapers or on radio or television.

Rosenberg concluded that the adolescent with low self-esteem appears to manifest all the behavior characteristics of the politically apathetic adult citizen.

This article has important implications for civic education: if a student has a low self-concept that distracts him from matters of broad social impact and forces him to an overwhelming absorption in his own psychological problems, no program of social education—no matter how effectively organized—is likely to reach him. Fortunately, in this study, students with a low self-esteem are a minority.

Rothstein, Arnold. "An Experiment in Developing Critical Thinking Through the Teaching of American History." Dissertation Abstracts, 21:1141, 1960.

Critical Thinking
Rothstein conducted this study to determine whether emphasizing critical thinking in an eleventh grade American history course resulted in the acquisition of subject matter and in critical thinking skills.

On the basis of test scores in mental ability, English reading and critical thinking skills, two groups of students were matched. In the experimental group, the critical thinking method was used. In the control group where it was assumed that critical thinking derives from subject matter acquisition, acquisition of facts as the ultimate goal was stressed.

Rothstein concluded that:

1. The experimental group developed critical thinking skills to a much greater extent than the control group.
2. Subject matter achievement—the mastery of the facts of history—was attained equally as well by the experimental as by the conventional method.

"It is clear that growth in thinking ability can be expected to derive from focused instruction; that when there is such a focus, the students reflect in their test scores increased ability to apply the techniques." (Page 1141.)

Sandberg, J. H. "Independent Study for Bright Students." Education, Vol. 85: pp. 158-61, November 1964.

Independent Study

Sandberg presents his concept and techniques for using independent study as a method for involving bright students in a course entitled *Introduction to the Social Sciences*. While completing the course, consisting of 16 units, students independently read required assignments in several paperbacks that informed them about each area of the social sciences.

Sandberg suggests that this approach emphasizing individual instruction also could be adapted, in technique and substance, to seminar presentation of the social sciences.

Schminke, Clarence W. "A Study of the Effective Utilization of a Classroom News Magazine in Teaching Current Events." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 21: pp. 1874-75, 1960.

Effect of News Magazine in Teaching Current Events

Using nine teachers and 18 sixth grade classes, Schminke conducted this study to determine the comparative efficacy of two ways of using a news magazine in teaching current events.

Method A or the limited systematic approach involved using only the magazine as instructional material. Method B or the supplemental systematic approach involved using not only the magazine but additional optional materials for study. Each approach focused on the weekly presentation of a specific purpose for considering significant current happenings and relating them to on-going events, trends and issues.

Schminke's findings did not statistically indicate a significant difference between the two approaches.

Schneider, Frederick W. "An Experimental Study Comparing the Effects of the Multiple Textbook Approach and the Single Textbook Approach to Elementary School Social Studies." Dissertation Abstracts, 19: pp. 97-98, 1957.

Single Text vs. Multiple Text

Schneider conducted this study to determine whether using a single textbook or the multi-textbook technique was more effective in teaching social studies to fourth graders.

Schneider's findings indicate that:

1. In subject-matter acquisition and improvement in behavior, either approach achieves results.
2. In developing work-study skills and understandings (not specifically enumerated in the *Abstract*), the multiple textbook approach—as measured subjectively in this experiment—seemed preferable.
3. Pupils with superior mentality in the multiple text group learned more effectively than their counterparts in the single textbook group.

Scott, C. M. "Relationship Between Intelligence Quotients and Gain in Reading Achievement with Arithmetic Reasoning, Social Studies, and Science." Journal of Educational Research, 56: pp. 322-6, February 1963.

Reading

Scott compared sixth grade students' gains in reading achievement with gains in various subject areas. He found the highest correlation with social studies and the lowest with science.

In social studies, the correlation was high for a low-ability group and low for a high-ability group. This inversion was attributed to the fact that the social studies test materials were inappropriate for the high-ability group.

Scriven, Donald D. "Economic Education: Identical Teaching Method and Materials for Secondary and Collegiate Students with Comparisons of Student Performances." Dissertation Abstracts, 26: pp. 2526-2527, November 1965.

Secondary and College Students Compared in Economic Instruction Utilizing Similar Techniques

Using identical textbooks and instructional methods, one teacher taught a 13-unit course in principles of economics to secondary and college students.

A statistical comparison of students' test scores showed:

1. In six units, no instructional allowances are necessary.
2. In one unit, further investigation is warranted.
3. In six units, instructional allowances for differences between secondary and college students must be made.

Selakovich, Dan. "An Experiment Attempting to Determine the Effectiveness of Frequent Testing as an Aid to Learning in Beginning College Courses in American Government." Journal of Educational Research, 55: pp. 178-80, December-January, 1962.

Frequency of Testing

One class of college students was frequently tested during a course in American Government and another class was tested only three times during the semester.

Achievement tests given at the end of the course indicated no significant difference between the two classes.

Shafer, S. M. "Geography via Programmed Instruction." The Journal of Geography, Vol. 64: pp. 77-81, February 1965.

Programmed Instruction

Shafer developed and used programmed materials in Argentinian and Brazilian geography with a slow class of ninth grade students and he used a textbook with an average class of ninth graders. In both classes, he used the discussion method.

After completing the two units, both groups took the same test. Shafer concluded that programmed rather than textbook materials more effectively helped the slow learners.

Shafer, S. M. "Teaching Machines and the Social Studies." Social Education, Vol. 25: pp. 85-86, February 1961.

Programmed Instruction

Shafer describes how he used the B. F. Skinner approach in programming the topic, How A Bill Becomes A Law. This program included 90 items to be completed in two days. In the initial experiment, Shafer used an eighth grade class of high ability students who responded enthusiastically to the method.

Judging from the results, Shafer concluded:

1. Programs need to be carefully edited for clarity.
2. Programs should be designed for the individual student.
3. Social studies material can be programmed but many programs must be developed in order to provide teachers with adequate and essential materials.

Shaver, James P. "Reflective Thinking Values and Social Studies Textbooks." The School Review, Vol. 73: pp. 226-257, 1965.

Textbooks for Thinking and Conceptualization

In order to determine whether secondary school social studies textbooks provide a conceptual framework for reflective thinking about societal issues (including alternatives for dealing with value conflicts), Shaver analyzed 93 current editions of reputable textbooks in American government, American problems and citizenship.

Shaver concludes that:

1. The texts provide students with only a minimal conceptual preparation for dealing with basic issues confronting the United States. Although the texts frequently advise students to think critically and effectively, they do not provide the conceptual framework for so doing.
2. Only if social studies teachers present extra-textbook material and students acquire relevant experience outside the classroom will students develop the intellectual competencies citizens need to deal with controversial issues, trends and events.

Skov, Lyle. "The Teaching-Learning of Factual Information in the Social Sciences in a Program that is Deliberately Structured to Promote Social Learnings for Democratic Behavior." Dissertation Abstracts, 22: pp. 4283-4284, 1962.

Cooperative Teacher-Pupil Planning and Working

In this study, Skov hypothesized that students in a social studies' program "deliberately structured to promote social learnings for democratic behavior" will learn more facts and enjoy learning more than in other types of learning environments.

Skov observed sixth grade classes characterized by cooperative teacher-pupil planning, sharing, purposing, acting and evaluating. Facts always were taught in terms of the children's interests and experiences.

Skov collected data through classroom observation, anecdotal records, conferences, children's written work, evaluations, tape recordings and standardized achievement test scores.

"According to the data, the quantity of factual learning in the observed rooms decidedly exceeded the normal expectancy as judged by standardized test scores. Also the quality of the factual information learned seemed to be superior. These learnings were more than isolated facts; these were learnings through interaction with their environment." (Page 4284.)

Smith, C. E. "Sound Foundations in High School." N.E.A. Journal, Vol. 50: pp. 21-23, October 1961.

Case Study

The author presents her opinion that high school students need to acquire an understanding of politics and that most secondary social studies textbooks fail to conceptually and substantively develop this understanding.

Smith then describes how she used material designed for college classes during a week of teaching high school students. On Monday, she assigned a case study for class discussion on Thursday. Although much of the week was devoted to discussion of various aspects of politics, the author considered the case study a very effective tool. (Students had begun to ask meaningful questions about the case study on Tuesday.)

Although Smith originally had had some reservations about the students' ability to use a case study, she concluded that well-written case studies stimulate high school students to think and reason with discrimination and cogency.

Smith, Harold F. "Enrichment of Learning in American History Through Use of Specially Selected Books: An Experiment Using Books Listed in the Standard Catalogue for High School Libraries in the Murphysboro, Illinois Township High School." Dissertation Abstracts, 24:5100, June 1964.

Variability of Library Resources as a Factor of American History Achievement

Smith used control groups and two experimental groups of high school students in American History classes to measure the effectiveness of selected materials for enhancing academic achievement.

Control groups used the existing school (Murphysboro, Illinois Township High School) collection of books listed in the *Standard Catalogue for High School Libraries*. One experimental class used a deposit collection of books listed in the catalogue. The other experimental class used books from both collections. As measured by a standardized test in American History, no significant differences in achievement were found among the three groups.

Trenfield, T. W. "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Selected Factors and the Civics Interests of High School Students." The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 58: pp. 461-462, July-August 1965.

Relating Civic Interest and Student Interest

Trenfield conducted this study to identify factors that affect high school students' interest in participating in adult civic activities and to incorporate these findings in suggested ways for improving high school programs in citizenship education—particularly in the social studies.

Trenfield constructed a questionnaire that measured the related variables and administered the instrument to 300 students in Lubbock, Texas. Significant positive relationships between students' interest in participating in adult civic activities and the following factors (ranked according to significance) were demonstrated:

1. Civic participation of parents
2. Participation in high school activities
3. Social studies achievement
4. Interest in social service occupations
5. Intelligence Quotient
6. General achievement
7. Social position of parents

Trenfield concluded his article with the observation that investigation of the actual causes of students' civic interest appears to be a fertile—although difficult—field for research.

Urick, Ronald V. "The Reflective Approach to Social Studies Education and Historical Explanations in American History Textbooks." Dissertation Abstracts, 27:149A, July 1966.

Textbooks

Urick analyzed the content of ten senior high school textbooks in American History in order to determine their respective emphases and treatment of various aspects of American Culture.

For the most part, every textbook dealt with economics and the forms and functions of government. Very little if any substance dealt with race and minority group relations; religion and morality; social class; sex, courtship and marriage.

Urick's findings confirmed the concept that apparently "certain closed areas in the American Culture" are neither identified nor presented and explained in textbooks written for high school students.

Walker, Joseph. "Research Reports: Aid to Teaching Social Studies." Clearing House, pp. 179-180, November 1956.

Oral Research Reports

Walker suggests using the oral research report as a technique to develop students' basic skills and to extend the scope of the social studies text.

Although teachers are expected to "cover" the textbook material, this learning can be enhanced by assigning oral reports that involve students in the following activities and experience:

1. Make use of sources of information
2. Find material in the library
3. Take notes from reading
4. Organize facts
5. Credit sources
6. Express opinions orally

Watman, T. J. "Social Studies in the High Schools." Education, Vol. 84: pp. 286-290, January 1964.

Multi-Method
Watman describes and discusses the various approaches for teaching social studies to high school students.

The *unit* approach necessitates organized planning and using various methods. The *problem* approach should motivate students to try to determine how policy decisions are made. Over-simplified problems do not generate "frustration" which "is a firm basis for acquiring knowledge and understanding."

For high school students, two types of *case studies* seem effective: situations related to the students' frame of reference or experience and situations based on actual occurrences or significant experiences.

In describing the *project* approach, Watman recommends projects that involve student effort and interest such as "get out the vote." He does, however, stress certain guides and cautions.

More briefly, Watman discusses the use of mock situations, local resources, speakers, trips, surveys, oral activities, tape recordings, reference materials, written work, films and bulletin boards.

Weinswig, S. E. "Evaluation of Lessons to Teach Introductory Map Skills in Grade Four." Dissertation Abstracts, 23:1295, 1962.

Working in Groups—Independent Study
Weinswig conducted this study to find out whether by working independently in groups children can effectively learn.

Using 25 fourth grade classes, Weinswig included seven in a control group and six in each of three experimental groups. Pupils in the control group pursued their usual teacher-directed social studies program.

In the experimental groups, pupils learned map skills from specially prepared lessons. In group I, pupils worked alone; in group II, in pairs; in group III, in trios.

Weinswig concluded that:

1. All experimental groups effectively used the map skills' lesson.
2. The experimental groups retained their learning throughout the school year.

"Team learning techniques proved successful in relation to learning map skills and social studies factual data. Greatest gains were shown by children working in teams of three followed by children working in pairs and those working alone, respectively." (Page 1295.)

Weitz, L. "Team Teaching at James Monroe High School." High Points, Vol. 46: pp. 5-39, January 1964.

Team Teaching (Lecture-Seminar)
Weitz describes and evaluates an experiment in team-teaching social studies and Biology in a large high school in New York City.

Activities in lectures and seminars are described and student attitudes toward each approach examined. (Students seemed enthusiastic about both.) Students also were involved in library research. A project room (including tapes, laboratory equipment and various materials) was available for students in Biology.

Weitz's analysis of test results obtained by control and experimental groups indicated no significant difference in achievement. Teachers, however, felt that the experimental group had made gains that had not been measured.

Willis, M. "Social Studies and Citizenship Education." Social Education, 24: pp. 217-218, May 1960.

Verbal Learning
Willis conducted a follow-up study of 51 high school graduates to determine if democratic behaviors practiced in the school or verbal learnings about democratic principles apparently had made the more lasting impression.

Willis' findings about members of the class of 1938 indicated that verbal learning had influenced adult behavior far less and that purely verbal learning tended to remain so.

Wolfsen, M. "How to Ask Questions in Social Studies." Clearing House, 28: pp. 363-364, February 1954.

Questioning
Wolfsen believes that the teaching of social studies can be more effective if the teacher uses a methodology of questioning that stimulates logical and analytical thinking. In this way, students learn how to evaluate textbook and other authoritarian sources of information and ideas.

Wood, Leslie A. "Programmed Textual Material as a Partial Substitute for Teacher-Led Classroom Procedures in Geography." Dissertation Abstracts, 23:2037, 1962.

Combined Programmed Materials and Teacher-Led Instruction
Wood studied two approaches for teaching textbook content and its applicability to new situations: programmed and teacher-led instruction and teacher-led instruction combined with textbook reading.

Wood used two groups of students. In one group, students in three classes were taught by programmed instruction and teacher-led activities. In the other group, students in three classes were taught by such teacher-led activities as lectures, textbook reading, worksheets. Both groups were taught by the same method to generalize and apply generalizations.

Wood's findings indicated:

1. Students using programmed materials learned facts better than students exclusively teacher-directed.
2. Students using programmed materials learned to apply factual knowledge as well as teacher-directed students.
3. Students using programmed materials tended to score higher on tests measuring ability to apply factual knowledge.

Wood concludes that, "The use of teacher-led activities to learn factual material may be both an unnecessary use of teacher time and an inefficient way for students to learn such subject matter."

Zelen, L. D., and Gross, R. E. "Dyadic Role-Playing of Controversial Issues." Social Education, Vol. 24: pp. 354-358, December 1960.

Role-Playing
Zelen and Gross deprecate the general reluctance of social studies' teachers to deal with contemporary social issues and problems in the classroom. To counteract

this tendency, they suggest and specifically describe role-playing as an effective technique for equitably presenting current social problems throughout the social studies curriculum.

Ziblatt, David. "High School Extracurricular Activities and Political Socialization." The Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 361: pp. 20-31, September 1965.

Extracurricular Activities

Ziblatt empirically tested the hypotheses that there is a direct relationship between participation in high school extracurricular activities and students' attitudes toward politics.

Using the entire sophomore and senior classes (526 students) in Springfield, Oregon, he conducted this study in the spring, 1963.

Ziblatt's findings suggest that:

1. A feeling of integration into the high school status system is associated with social trust.
2. Social trust, which is generated by the activities as a component of the total school program, and not the actual experience of extracurricular participation catalyzes a positive attitude toward politics.
3. Students from the working class—who most would benefit from extracurricular participation—are least likely to join. Consequently, these students do not perceive that equality of opportunity exists in the status system.

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